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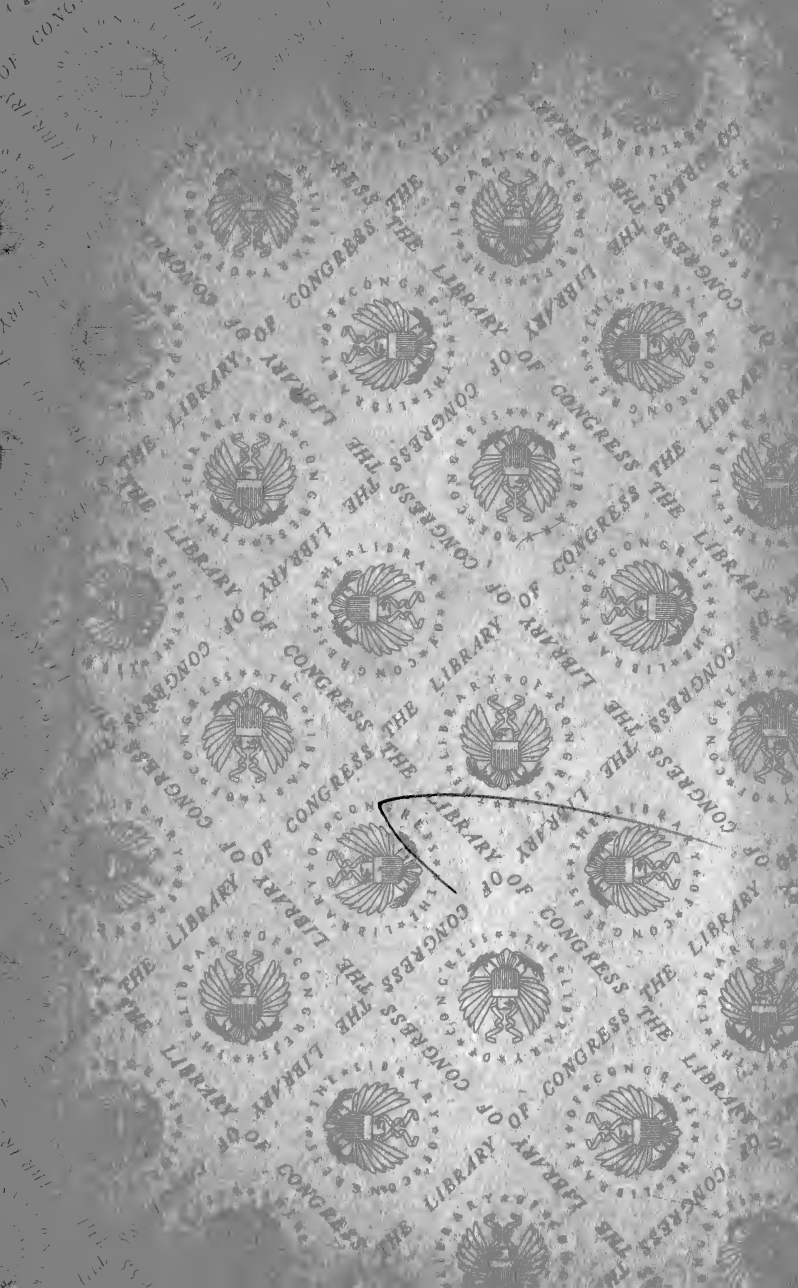
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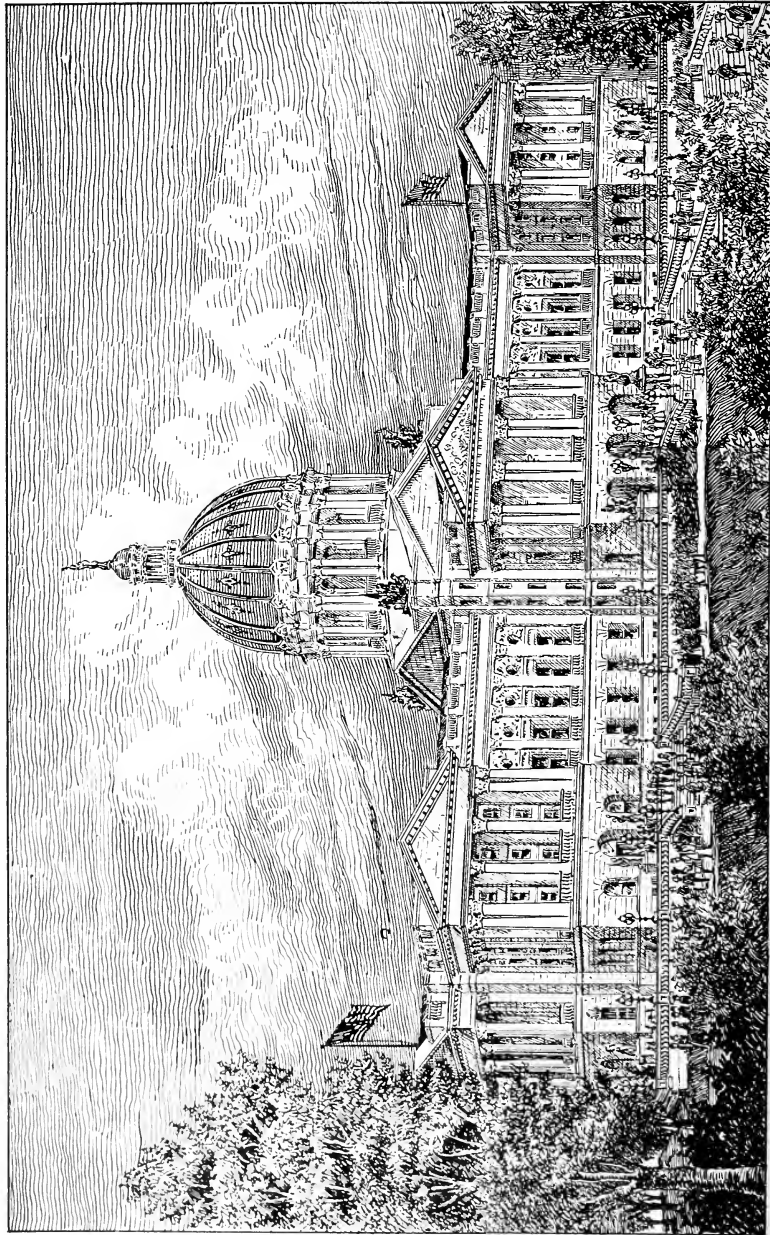












THE NEW PENNSYLVANIA STATE CAPITOL BUILDING (as proposed).

A HISTORY OF PENNSYLVANIA

BY

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Harrisburg, Pa.

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PREFACE

When historical societies for study and research in Pennsylvania history — local and general — are multiplying all over the State, no apology is needed for writing a book on the subject. Pennsylvania has a history of more than two centuries. It consists, like that of the other States which separated from Great Britain to form the American Union, of a Colonial, a Revolutionary, and a Constitutional period. It has always been a part of another history: first of England, and then of the United States. This is true, not alone in a nominal, but in a real sense. United States history, whether its political, social, or industrial side, is of a composite nature. Every State helps to make it. The contribution of the thirteen original States is the greatest, because they have a Colonial and a Revolutionary history. In Pennsylvania these periods are especially interesting and important, though they have been sadly neglected.

But independent of the relation to United States history, State history has a claim on us for study and investigation. Pennsylvania ranks second among the States in wealth and population, and has the proud distinction of being the Keystone of the Union. If we would maintain this preëminence we must not be indifferent to our history, else neither we nor our descendants will attain to greater heights. Anything that is worthy of a future has a past that ought to be

studied. Then, too, a patriotic duty and a pardonable pride should move us to study the history of the State in which we live. It is the history of our forefathers, and we might as well neglect their graves as their deeds.

There is also a pedagogical reason for the study of State history. American history, in all its phases, is receiving increased attention in colleges and universities. The Association of Colleges and Preparatory Schools has advocated the adoption of better methods for teaching the subject. The Committee of Ten of the National Educational Association recommended its introduction in two places in the public school course—in the grammar and the high school. But to accomplish all this with the greatest possible degree of success, there must be a deep and abiding interest aroused in American history. Such an interest can be created by the teaching of State history. Its persons, places and events are near in point of place, and have a great fascination for the mind. To stand by an historic grave, to set foot upon historic ground, and to receive history from the lips or the pen of one who helped to make it, are powerful adjuncts to teachers and books.

As to its plan and contents, the book may speak for itself. However, the author desires to call attention to the chapter of biographical sketches. With few exceptions the biography of every person named in the book can be found in that chapter. The chronological arrangement of the Governors' biographies and the alphabetical arrangement of all others make it easy to find them. Whenever the name of a person is met for the first time, his biography should be read.

In writing "A Pennsylvania History," the author performed the part of a pioneer. In the plan and scope of this work, there was no book to imitate and none to modify; consequently much original research in official reports and documents was necessary, and constant visits to the best libraries in the State had to be made. This explanation is made to soften criticism and make it charitable. However, the author will be greatly obliged for the communication of any error, and for suggestions by which he can improve the book.

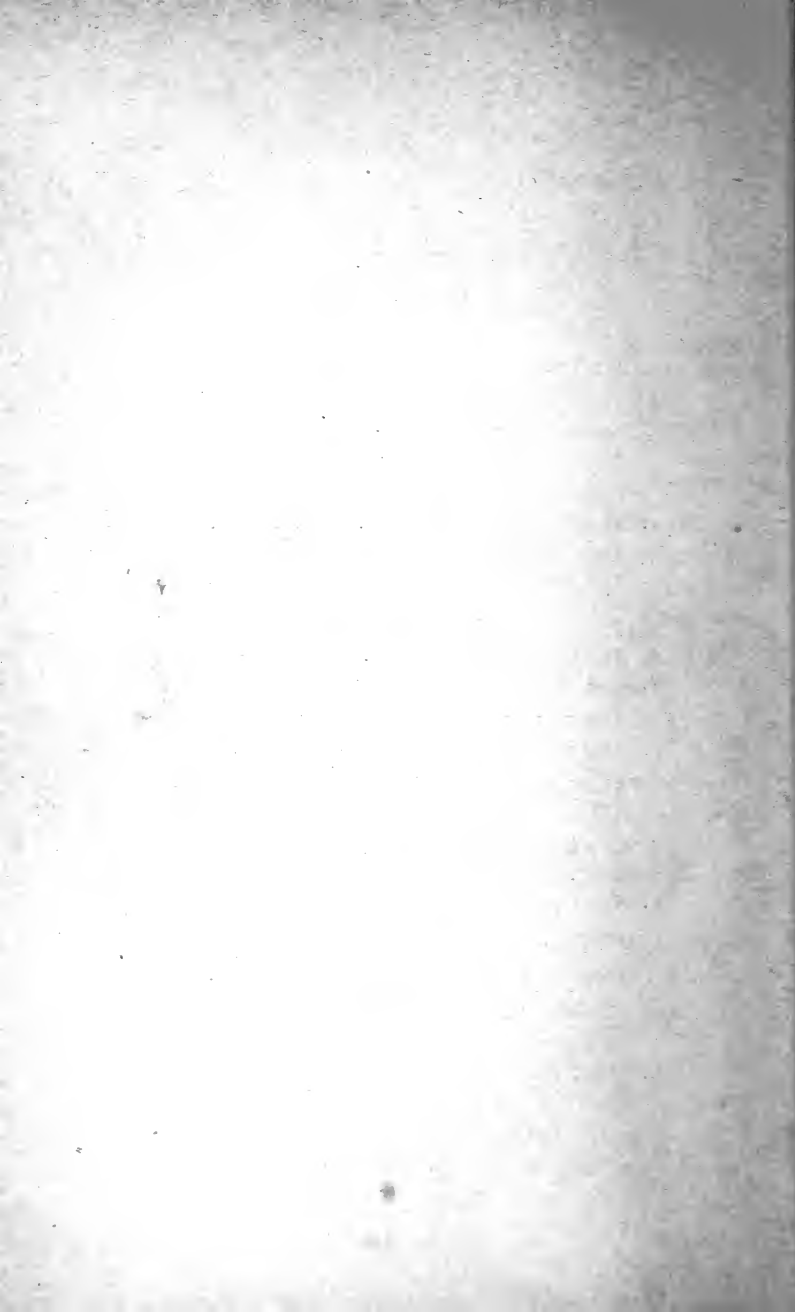
L. S. S.

HARRISBURG, PA., *January 2, 1900.*



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A History of Pennsylvania

CHAPTER I

THE INDIANS OF PENNSYLVANIA

THEIR GEOGRAPHICAL DISTRIBUTION

The Indians who occupied the territory of Pennsylvania at the time of its settlement belonged to two great families—the Algonquins and the Iroquois. These occupied a part of North America which was triangular in form, the base extending from Cape Fear to the coast of Labrador, and the sides terminating in Lake Superior. The Iroquois, or Five Nations, were in the center of this triangle, in the lake region of New York, from Albany to Niagara Falls. Surrounding these dwelt the numerous nations and tribes of the Algonquins. It was in the language of the Algonquins that Raleigh's colonists were greeted at Roanoke, the Pilgrims at Plymouth, and the Quakers at Shackamaxon.

Both these groups had traditions of a western origin. Of the Algonquins, the Lenni-Lenape, or the Delawares, as they were called by the English, were the most important. Their Indian name signifies "the original people;" and nearly forty tribes acknowledged them as "great grandfathers." A legend was current among the Lenni-Lenape that in

Two Great
Families

Their Origin

the dim past they and the Iroquois were one people, living beyond the Mississippi. After a time they migrated eastward and came to the Mississippi, where their passage across was disputed by a nation of fierce warriors on the eastern bank. The Lenni-Lenape tried to pass over in the face of the enemy on the other side. The Iroquois crossed higher up the stream, outflanked the enemy, and so enabled their friends to get over. The fierce nation on the east bank were the Allegewi, who were driven back until they reached the mountains. Thence they made their way southward, never to return, leaving no trace except the names *Allegheny* and *Youghiogheny*. The Lenni-Lenape crossed the mountains and reached the ocean; while the Iroquois went up the Allegheny and thence into central New York. But this is only a legend. It bears some resemblance to the crossing of the Jordan by the Israelites, the story of which the Delawares had heard from the missionaries. Still, it accounts for the geographical distribution of the Algonquins and the Iroquois over the triangular part of North America known to have been occupied by them at the time of its exploration and settlement.

When Penn arrived on the banks of the Delaware, The Delawares and Subtribes he met there the Lenni-Lenape tribe and its subtribes. They had made the Delaware river the center of their possessions. They consisted of three tribes; viz., the Turtle, the Turkey, and the Wolf. The first two lived along the coast from the Hudson to the Potomac, between the sea and the Blue mountains. The third, whom the English called Monseys, occupied the mountainous country between the Blue mountains and

the sources of the Delaware and Susquehanna rivers ; and they kindled their great council fires at the Minisink Flats. These three tribes were divided into numerous subtribes, named, according to Indian custom, after the rivers, creeks, or other noted places at which they lived.

According to the tradition of Penn's treaty, he met another tribe — the Susquehannocks, or The
Audastes — under the elm tree at Shacka- Susquehannocks
maxon. While the Delawares inhabited New Jersey



Penn's Treaty at Shackamaxon. (See page 28.)

and eastern Pennsylvania, the Susquehannocks occupied the country on the Susquehanna and Allegheny rivers. The Iroquois, having been supplied with firearms by the Dutch in New York, made war upon the upper Susquehannocks, and almost exterminated them. Driven down the Susquehanna valley, the few

that survived were allowed to establish themselves along the Conestoga creek, and were afterwards known as Conestogas. It was this remnant of Susquehannocks with whom Penn treated, jointly with the Delawares, under the Shackamaxon Elm.

The hunting grounds made vacant by the extermination of the Susquehannocks were given to various tribes by the Iroquois. The upper parts of the Susquehanna valley were allotted to the Nanticokes, a tribe from the eastern shore of Maryland, claiming relationship to the Lenni-Lenape. Some of this tribe settled on the lower Susquehanna, not far from where John Harris afterwards established a ferry, at the present site of Harrisburg. The Nanticokes had the singular custom of disinterring the bones of their ancestors and carrying them to their new abode. They used to go from Wyoming and Shenango to the eastern shore of Maryland to get the bones of their dead.

After disposing of the Susquehannocks, the Iroquois made war on the Delawares. According to the account of the latter, the Iroquois would have been exterminated had it not been for the peaceful disposition of the Delawares. Among the Indians, the women are the peacemakers; the men, though never so weary of the contest, hold it cowardly to offer the olive branch. The Iroquois, fearing total extinction, proposed that the Delawares should assume the character of the *woman* among the Indians. "One nation," said they, "shall be the *woman*," who was not to go to war, but keep the peace with all, and the men were to hear and obey the *woman*. The Delawares were thence-

forth to dress in woman's long costume, to carry a calabash filled with oil and medicines, and to engage in the cultivation of Indian corn.

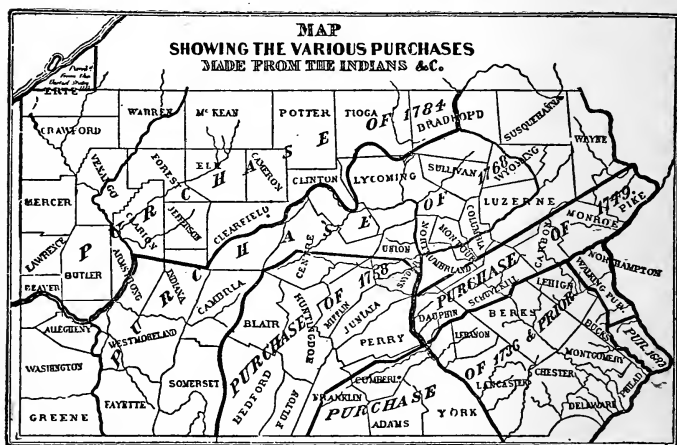
The Iroquois, though agreeing in the details of this account, denied that the Delawares chose to play the *woman*. They claimed to have conquered the Delawares and forced them to adopt the defenseless state and name of *woman*. Whichever account is true, the fact remains that the Delaware nation was ever afterwards looked to for the preservation of the peace. It was entrusted with the great belt of peace and the chain of friendship, the middle of which was said to rest on the shoulders of the Delawares, the other Indian nations holding one end and the Europeans the other.

The Iroquois, whether by strategy or by force it matters not, were now in a position to assume the rights of protection and command over the Delawares, who, though permitted to stay in their old homes, were but little better than serfs. Their conquerors wandered over their lands at pleasure. The Senecas and Cayugas frequently came into the valleys of the Susquehanna, roaming about at will and using the waters and forests for fishing and hunting. Resident deputy-governors were appointed by the grand council of the Iroquois. Shikellimy, the noted chief residing at Shamokin in the first half of the last century, was one of the vice-kings.



Shikellimy.

The Iroquois were always considered by the Delaware as only one nation. The name of *Five Nations* (and later *Six Nations*) was given them by their English ally, to magnify their importance. Their own name—*Aquonoschioni*—signifies *one house, one family*, which consisted originally of the Mohawks, Oneidas, Onondagas, Cayugas and Senecas. The alliance of the five tribes was proposed by the



Mohawks; hence they rank as the eldest brother in the family.

The Tuscaroras, the sixth and last tribe in the league, joined it about one hundred years after its formation. In 1713, they were driven out of the upper country of the Neuse and Tar rivers, in North Carolina, by the whites. They sojourned in the Juniata valley for some ten years, and gave their name to a chain of mountains in that section of the State. In fact, some of them had a village

in the valley, which bore their name until after the purchase of 1758. On the supposition that they were originally of the same stock with the Five Nations, the Tuscaroras were adopted into the Iroquois Confederacy, which was afterwards known as the Six Nations.

There was still another nation of Iroquois in Pennsylvania; but they were not connected with the Five Nations of New York. They were The Eries the Eries, known also as the Cat Nation, by reason of their cats, a sort of small wolf, from whose skin robes ornamented with tails were made. These Indians occupied the western shore of Lake Erie, from Buffalo to Toledo. Captain John Smith fell in with a party of them at the head of the Chesapeake bay, whither they had come to make war on the Susquehannocks. They had come down by way of the Potomac, and filled seven canoes, whose construction gave evidence of experience on some large body of water. The Eries were overthrown by the Iroquois about the year 1655. After that time there is no mention of their existence.

A tribe of Indians prominent in the history of Pennsylvania was the Shawanese. They The Shawanese were the Bedouins of North America, for as wanderers they were without rivals among their race. They were Algonquins; but their original home is not known to a certainty. They have been traced to the valley of the Cumberland river. Thence, their principal band moved to the Atlantic slope, in South Carolina. About the year 1698, some three or four score families, by leave of the Susquehannocks, planted themselves on the Conestoga. A few, at the request of the Monseys, were allowed to settle about the forks

of the Delaware. Other straggling parties joined their brethren, until, finally, they were a numerous and powerful tribe in the province. Some historians assign an earlier date for the migration of the Shawanese, and claim that they, too, were present when the celebrated treaty was made at Shackamaxon. It is said that at a conference held with one of Penn's successors, this nation produced the treaty on parchment.

THEIR NATIVE CHARACTER

In delineating the character of the Indians of Pennsylvania, happily for them, we can go back to a time when it had not yet become greatly changed by association with the Europeans. Hecke-
The
Good Sidewelder, the great Moravian apostle to the Indians, gives us an example of how we should judge the red man:

"Often I have listened to these descriptions of their hard sufferings, until I felt ashamed of being a white man."

The Indian known to the missionaries of Pennsylvania was a religious being. An old Delaware once said that it had ever been the custom of his fathers to climb upon a high mountain to thank the Great Manitou (spirit) for all his benefits, and to ask for a continuance of the same, feeling sure that their prayers were heard by him. They were very hospitable, and expected hospitality in return. Some traveling Delawares once put their horses in a meadow of fine grass without permission, and, when taken to account replied, "Can you make the grass grow? The Great Manitou makes it grow, both for your horses and for ours." Civility was a marked trait in their

character. A "good morning, father," "grandfather," "uncle," and so on, down to a small grandchild, was the common form of address. Even the children saluted one another affectionately and respectfully. Quarrels were avoided. Fighting, they said, is only for dogs and other beasts. It was a rare thing to hear of murders among them in the days before the settlement of Pennsylvania. This we know from the testimony of reliable and well-informed Indians who helped to build the first houses in Philadelphia. The sense of wit was rare among them, yet there were occasional instances of it. The Delawares compared the European nations in America to a pair of scissors, which cut what comes between them. "The Europeans do not want to destroy themselves in their wars, but us poor Indians that are between them." In their aboriginal state, they were not vain; but they possessed a high-minded pride that was truly heroic at times. A white prisoner taken at Fort McIntosh, now Beaver, and carried into Ohio, was condemned to die at the stake. Two English traders, acquainted with the Indian's personal pride, said to the chief: "Among all the chiefs there is none to equal you in greatness." "Do you really believe what you say?" asked the chief, in childish simplicity. "Indeed we do." Then the chief rushed through the crowd, cut the cords around the prisoner, and set him free. Before the astonishment was over, the prisoner was out of sight.

The Indian, like every other savage race, had a dark side to his character. His name be- The
came a synonym for revenge and cruelty. Dark Side
But are we in a position to "cast the first stone?"
Our estimate of his character was prepared by the

white man. "If lions had painters," illustrates the Indian's position in history. Few men outside of the missionaries told his side of a long, cruel story. Columbus, the first white man to know the red men, pays them the high compliment that "they love their neighbors as themselves." The original Indians were not beasts of prey; they became such by exasperation.

Another instance of the deterioration of Indian character is his drunkenness. When Henry Hudson and his sailors first offered the cup to the Mohicans on Manhattan, it was passed around the circle as if they had been taught the lesson—"touch not, taste not, handle not." But one was tempted, and he became the Adam of a long line of Indian drunkards. The thoughtful Indians of a century or two ago well knew whom to blame for their drunkenness. A missionary once asked an Indian at Pittsburg who he was. He answered: "My name is Black Fish; when at home with my people, I am a clever fellow, but when here I am a hog." William Penn, in his letter to the Free Society of Traders, in London, says: "Since the Europeans came into these parts, the Indians are grown great lovers of strong liquors, rum especially, and for it exchange the richest of their skins and furs." Surprise was often expressed by these simple children of the forest that a people who believe in a religion of the Great Spirit, who claim to have his own word in their houses, could think of making a liquor to bewitch and to destroy one another. When the English traders, soon after Penn's death, had gone among them in the valleys of the Juniata and the Susquehanna, they had constant complaints to make about the sale of rum to their people.

THEIR MODE OF LIFE

The Indians had no code of laws, except a few unwritten rules of justice and courtesy, which were enforced by the chiefs and their counsellors. The wampum, or Indian money, necessary to carry an order of the chief into effect, was freely given. Important transactions were ratified by strings and belts of wampum. Black wampum signified war; white, peace, friendship, good-will. The pipe of peace, which was made of black or red stone, had to be whitened before it was used for such a purpose. To keep treaties fresh in the memory, the chiefs met occasionally at some chosen spot in the forest and rehearsed them. Thus, between the years 1770 and 1780, the Delawares could relate very minutely what had passed between William Penn and their forefathers. On such occasions, the Indians sat around a chest, took out one string or belt after another, handed it to every person present, and repeated the words spoken at its delivery.

Few Laws

The Indians had no schools. The parents taught the children. The first lessons were about the Great Spirit and about the duties to parents and elders. Reading and writing were unknown arts to them. The Iroquois and Delawares understood a little counting. The position of the sun served to show the time of day; and the stages of the corn, the season of the year. The marriage tie was weak, and polygamy was permitted. The children followed the mother in case of separation. The name, as a rule, was given by the father, who generally selected that of some animal. Other names were fre-

No Schools

quently added. Thus, one who wore torn or patched shoes was called *Bad Shoes*; one who had large eyes, *Great Eye*. To the white men the Indians gave suggestive names of their own. When the Delawares had learned the meaning of Penn's name, they at once called him *Miquon*, feather or quill. The Iroquois called him *Onas*, for the same reason. Ingenious compounds were invented. Thus, the name for Philadelphia was *Quequenaku*, "the grove of the long pine trees."

Occupations Hunting was considered the most honorable occupation. The Delawares early trained their boys to run so fast as to overtake a deer, and to shoot small fishes with their bows and arrows.



Neshaminy Creek, Bucks county.

The oyster, the land-tortoise and the locust were also in demand for food. Vegetables of various kinds were raised; but maize, aside from meat and fish, was the

chief food. They planted it after the hazelnut was in bloom, as a precaution against frost. The shoulder-blade of a deer or a tortoise shell was used to hoe—a work that fell to the women.

Dancing and singing were the Indian's amusement, though he indulged in them for other purposes. This grotesque performance ended in a disagreeable yell, which resembled the mewing of the cat-bird at the close of its pretty song. The war dance was to terrify, not to please. It was performed around a painted post, and the dancers went through all the motions and actions of the battle. After a victory, a dance of thanksgiving was in order. It was religious in its nature.

Amusements

BOOKS FOR READING AND CONSULTATION

Stone's *Life and Times of Red-Jacket*, Ch. i; Heckewelder's *Indian Nations*; Parkman's *Conspiracy of Pontiac*, Ch. i; Schoolcraft's *Notes on the Iroquois*, Chs. iii and iv; Doddridge's *Notes, passim*; Loskiel's *Indian Mission*, Part I.

CHAPTER II

THE SETTLEMENT OF PENNSYLVANIA

THE DUTCH

Penn's settlers were not the first Europeans to dwell on the banks of the Delaware. Henry Hudson, the English explorer, after two failures under his native flag to discover a short passage to Asia, got the consent of Holland to try the same experiment under the Dutch flag. In 1609, this daring adventurer, with some Netherlanders and Englishmen, set sail in the Half Moon for China by way of the northeast. Fogs and ice, and the recollection of what Frobisher, Drake, Raleigh and other Englishmen had done in America, made him change his course. After stopping at various points along the Atlantic coast, he touched the mouth of "a great bay," which was afterwards named Delaware bay, in honor of Lord Delaware, who entered it the next year. Hudson spent one day on its waters, and then sailed north, discovering the river which bears his name. On this brief visit to Delaware bay the Dutch based their claim to the country of the Zuydt (south) bay and river. After Hudson had reported his discoveries to Holland, five vessels were sent from Amsterdam to America in 1614. Four of them made explorations around Manhattan and to the eastward. The other, under command of Cornelis Jacobson Mey, went south

and reached Delaware bay, where the Captain left his name on the southern cape of New Jersey.

The vessels all returned to Holland except the Unrest, Captain Cornelis Hendrickson, which Captain
Hendrickson had been built on the Hudson to take the place of one that had been burned. The Unrest was accordingly the first vessel constructed in this country by Europeans. With it Captain Hendrickson, in 1616, explored the Delaware more minutely, ascending it as far north as the mouth of the Schuylkill, which river he discovered. By a singular coincidence, he met three Netherlanders near the site of Philadelphia; they had come there from Fort Nassau (Albany) by way of the Mohawk and the Delaware. On his arrival home he gave a glowing account of the land of the Delaware, describing it as a vast forest, abounding in bucks and does, turkeys and partridges; the climate temperate, and the trees mantled by the vine.

The application of the Puritans to settle in America under the protection of Holland, and the First Settlement
on the Delaware intimation that the English were disposed to colonize the lands claimed by the Dutch, led, finally, to the chartering of the Dutch West India Company, 1621. This corporation at once turned its attention to its two objects — traffic and colonization. Its possessions extended from the Delaware to the Hudson, and were named "The New Netherlands." In the spring of 1623, Captain Mey sailed for the Delaware bay with a number of colonists. Passing the cape bearing his name, he ascended the river for a distance of fifty miles, and on the eastern shore erected Fort Nassau, near the present site of Gloucester. This was the first European settlement on the banks of the Delaware.

On the west side of the river, an association of patroons resident in Amsterdam, in 1630 **Swaanendael** bought an estate from the Indians. A settlement of some thirty people, the first in Delaware, and older than any in Pennsylvania, was made the next year on Lewes creek. It was named Swaanendael, but its settlers, on account of a petty quarrel between the commander of the fort and the Indians about a piece of tin, were all murdered by the savages. Not even the faithful watchdog escaped. However, the ruins of Swaanendael and the bones of its Dutch inhabitants gave Delaware a separate existence. The English recognized occupancy as a title to the wilderness. Lord Baltimore's grant, which he received the year following the destruction of Swaanendael, extended over Delaware. Had it not been occupied before by the Dutch, the State would likely have been included in Maryland.

There is some evidence, too, of a very early Dutch settlement on the soil of Pennsylvania. **A Dutch Settlement in Pennsylvania** Tradition has it that a company of miners from Holland made their way from Esopus (now Kingston), on the Hudson, to the Delaware below Milford, and settled within the present limits of Monroe and Pike counties, principally on the site of Shawnee. There are accounts of "mine-holes" near the Blue mountains, and of a "mine-road" a hundred miles long. On this road, it is said, the Hollanders of the Minisink Flats took their wheat and cider to Esopus on the Hudson as late as 1730, without knowing anything about Philadelphia. Large orchards of "apple trees far beyond the size of any near Philadelphia" were reported to have been seen by some

public surveyors about fifty years after the settlement of the state.

THE SWEDES

Before the Dutch could recover the soil of Delaware from the Indians, a European competitor appeared. As early as 1624, application was made to Gustavus Adolphus, King of Sweden, by a dissatisfied member of the Dutch West India Company, for a Swedish West India Company. The charter was granted in 1626. It was a paper that breathed much love for humanity. All oppressed Christendom was to have an asylum in the New World. The colony was to be "the jewel of the kingdom." But alas! the battle of Lutzen put an end to all of this good King's dreams. Fortunately, Oxenstiern, his Premier, became the executor of the plans of the dead master. Through this wise and good statesman the first permanent settlement was made on the Delaware.

Gustavus
Adolphus and
Oxenstiern



Gustavus Adolphus.

Peter Minuit, a German of Wesel, the first governor of New Netherlands, was obliged to resign in 1633, on account of factional strife. He then offered his services to the Swedes, and took out the first colony. He arrived in 1638, and landed his little company of Swedes and Finns near Lewes, Delaware. A fort was erected near the mouth of the creek, and both fort and creek were named Christina, in honor of the little girl who had succeeded

The Dutch
Purchase

her father to the throne. All the lands from Cape Henlopen to the Falls of Trenton were purchased from the Indians, and stakes and marks put up. The Dutch protested, but without effect. The enthusiastic Scandinavians extended their plantations and their trade with the Indians, and exported thousands of skins the first year.

Seeing their protests defied, the Dutch stationed some twenty men at Fort Nassau, which had been abandoned with the destruction of Swaanendael. So when Printz, the third governor of New Sweden, arrived, in 1643, he selected the island of Tinicum, now Tinicum township, Delaware county, a few miles below Philadelphia, for a place of residence and defense, and called it New Gottenberg. A strong fort was built as a protection against attacks from Fort Nassau.

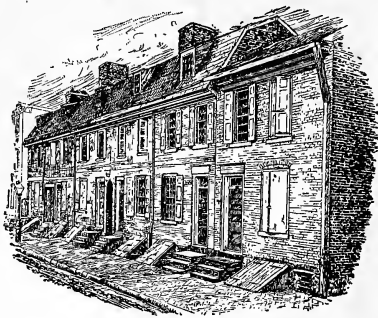
The governor also erected a handsome mansion with bricks from Sweden. This, it is said, stood for more than one hundred and fifty years, when its history was ended by a fire. New Gottenberg was the first European settlement in Pennsylvania of which there is positive knowledge. The few English families, Londoners, who had found the soil of Connecticut too stubborn for their easy habits, and had settled on the Schuylkill, either left or submitted to Swedish jurisdiction.

It now became evident to the Dutch on the Hudson that the Swedes on the Delaware were becoming dangerous rivals. Fort Nassau, "being too far up and out of the way," was broken up, and Fort Casimir erected in 1651, near the present town of New Castle, and about five

The Dutch
Settlers in
Pennsylvania

The Swedes
Surrender

miles from Fort Christina. It was agreed to be neighborly, but that was impossible. The Swedes soon took the offensive, gained entrance to Fort Casimir under pretense of friendship, and overpowered the garrison. This was a fatal step. Stuyvesant, the governor of New Netherlands, was ordered to "avenge the wrong and to drive the Swedes from the Delaware or compel their submission." In 1665, he compelled both Fort Casimir and Fort Christina to surrender to him.



Swedish houses in Philadelphia.

Then ended the Swedish power on the Delaware. The whole territory, from Cape Henlopen to the Falls of Trenton, passed under the rule of the Dutch, which remained undisputed, except by Lord Baltimore, until 1664, when all of New Netherlands was taken by the Duke of York, to whom the King of England had granted it.

The Dutch were grouped around New Castle and Leweston; while the Swedes and Finns dwelt at Christina creek, at Upland, and about the present site of Philadelphia.

Location
of Dutch and
Swedes

With the exception of the brief reversion to the Dutch—1673 to 1674—these settlements remained in possession of the Duke of York until he granted them to William Penn, when those now in Delaware became known as "the three lower counties," or "the territories of Pennsylvania."

The Swedes left some interesting footprints in the history of the State. Though they were blended with other nationalities, yet the modicum of their blood now in the veins of Pennsylvanians is worth examining. It is true that among the first arrivals there were many bandits. Criminals were sent over in such numbers that during Printz's administration the abuse was forbidden, "lest Almighty God should let his vengeance fall on the ships and goods and the virtuous people that were on board." However, the Swedes who settled in Pennsylvania are not remembered by the unworthy ones; these left no impress on its history. The virtuous and industrious Swedes are proudly remembered in Bucks, Montgomery, Delaware and Philadelphia counties, as the first white



The Church at Wicaco.

men to woo the virgin soil. They were a religious people. Their first church was built on Tinicum island, and was dedicated in 1646. There, too, the first marriage between Europeans in Pennsylvania is supposed to have been solemnized—that of Governor

Printz's daughter, in 1644. In Philadelphia, the Gloria Dei, or Swedes' Church, stands as a monument to the historic church at Wicaco, which was built for the use of the inhabitants of Passyunk and beyond, about the year 1669, not far from the site of the navy yard. It had loopholes, that it might be used as a place of safety against the Indians or other enemies.

"As once, for fear of Indian beating,
Our grandsires bore their guns to meeting,
Each man equipped, on Sunday morn,
With psalm-book, shot and powder horn."

Through the Swedes' court at Upland, Delaware county has the dictinction of furnishing the first case of conjugal disagreement in Pennsylvania (1661), of having first whipped and branded a criminal (1669), of having laid out the first highway (1677), of having made the first appointment of a guardian, and the first commitment of a lunatic (1678), and of having empaneled the first jury (1678).

THE ENGLISH.

After the lands on the Delaware had finally passed into the hands of the English, 1674, Governor Andros, the Duke of York's deputy in America, made numerous grants of lands in the territory soon to become "Penn's Woods." The first permanent English settlement in Pennsylvania was made at this period. Some Quakers having come from England with fourteen of their brethren who colonized West Jersey, settled near the Lower Falls, on land afterwards in Bucks county. They had become so well established by the time Penn

founded his colony that he thought of locating his capital at Pennsbury or Bristol. Some time before obtaining his charter and sailing for America, he became assignee of one of the Quaker proprietors of West Jersey and part owner of East Jersey. Through the correspondence which he had on this account, he



William Penn.

learned that "the Indian country on the west side of the Delaware is most beautiful to look upon, that it only wanteth a wise people to render it, like the ancient Canaan, 'the glory of the earth.' "

Three things moved Penn to plant a colony in the New World : First, he would get payment for the debt of 16,000 pounds due his father as an officer of the British navy ; secondly, he would find a place for his brethren, the Quakers, or Friends, where they would not be openly insulted in the streets,

Penn's Motives

dragged from their meeting-houses to loathsome jails, and robbed of the last bed or cow to pay the fines for not attending the established church; and thirdly, he would satisfy the desire which the glowing accounts of the brethren in West Jersey had created in him. The second of these motives was by far the strongest. Penn himself had been tried for preaching to "an unlawful, seditious and riotous assembly." The first verdict was, "Guilty of speaking in Grace-church street." This verdict was brought in repeatedly, in spite of threats from the judge that he would starve the jury if they did not say "Guilty," or "Not Guilty." Finally the verdict of "Not Guilty" was rendered, whereupon the judge fined each of the jurors forty marks and imprisonment till paid, because they had followed their "own judgment" rather than the "good advice" given them by him. Penn also was fined for having his hat on in the presence of the court. In this trial the following words were exchanged:

Lord-Mayor—Stop his mouth; gaoler, bring fetters and stake him to the ground.

William Penn—Do your pleasure; I matter not your fetters.

The Judge—Till now I never understood the reason of the policy and prudence of the Spaniards in suffering the Inquisition among them; and certainly it will never be well with us till something like the Spanish Inquisition be in England.

From this trial it is seen that William Penn and his people enjoyed neither religious nor civil liberty in England. In Europe, church and state, as a rule, are not separate. In most countries, a certain church—called the established church, or state church—is a part of the government. In the seventeenth century, when all

Religious
Conditions in
Europe

but one of the thirteen colonies were planted, there was a great democratic uprising in England, Holland, Germany and France; the common people, especially the owners of small freeholds, began to claim a share in the government under which they lived. This desire for greater liberty showed itself most strongly in religious matters; for the established churches in those days interfered very much with freedom of conscience. As a result, numerous sects—religious bodies outside of the state church—sprang up among the common people. As these sects had everything to gain and nothing to lose, they grew rapidly, and became very much hated by the government. When it was found that they could not be suppressed, to get rid of them they were allowed to settle in America. Of these, the one founded by George Fox—the Quakers, or Friends—was a very active one, and, on coming here, they opened wide the gates of Pennsylvania for the sects of Europe. As a universal father, Penn opened his arms to all mankind, without distinction of sect or party. Here are his own words concerning his purposes:

"And, because I have been somewhat exercised, at times, about the nature and end of government, it is reasonable to expect, that I should endeavor to establish a just and righteous one, that others may take example by it;—truly, this my heart desires. * * * I do, therefore, desire the Lord's wisdom to guide me, and those that may be concerned with me, that we do the thing that is truly wise and just."

With this exalted object in view, Penn, in 1680, Application for a Charter petitioned King Charles II for a grant of land in America. The king himself was willing at once, because he could thus pay the debt

he owed Penn. Some of his counsellors objected, saying, that it would be ridiculous to suppose that the interests of the British nation were to be promoted by sending a colony of people that would *not fight*, that would have nothing to do with gin and gunpowder in dealing with the Indians. Had it not been for one member of the Privy Council, Pennsylvania might not exist today. The nature of his speech, which won the day for Penn, is seen in the closing words :

"Surely, then, my lords, you will agree with me that it is high time for William Penn and his Quakers to be off. Yes, my lords, I repeat it; they *must be off*, or this excellent government of kings, priests and nobles is gone forever; and chaos and wild uproar is come again."



Penn's Book-plate.

On the fourth day of March, 1681, William Penn was made, by charter, proprietor and governor of the province of Pennsylvania. His choice of a name was *New Wales*; but the king insisted on *Pennsylvania*. Penn next proposed *Sylvania*, on the ground that the prefix *Penn* would appear like vanity on his part, and not as a mark of respect for his father; but no amendment was accepted. The extent of the province was three degrees of latitude by five degrees of longitude; the eastern boundary being the Delaware river, the northern, "the beginning of the three and fortieth degree of northern latitude, and on the south a circle drawn at

Name of
Province and
Boundaries

twelve miles distance from New Castle, northward and westward into the beginning of the fortieth degree of northern latitude, and then by a straight line westward to the limits of longitude above mentioned." The "three lower counties on the Delaware"—Kent, Sussex and the New Castle district—were not included in the charter. Penn, seeing the importance of controlling this vestibule to his province, secured a grant for it from the Duke of York the following year. Penn's charter hangs in a frame in the State Library at Harrisburg. It consists of three pieces of parchment. The writing is all underscored in red ink, and a well-executed likeness of his majesty, the king, is at the top of the first page.

After publishing an address to the Quakers and to others, concerning his new state, Penn drew up a form of government and a code of laws, and sent his cousin, William Markham, to take possession of the country and act as deputy governor. Markham arrived in the Delaware about July 1, 1681. Later in the year, three ships sailed for Pennsylvania, two from London and one from Bristol. Several sessions of court were held at Upland under Markham's rule. The first entry was dated September 13, 1681. It was a case of assault and battery, notwithstanding that it occurred in the peaceful land of Penn. The deputy governor was joined by three commissioners soon after his arrival, to confer with the Indians about the sale of land and to make a league of peace with them. The first purchase was made July 15, 1682. The tract extended along the Delaware from the mouth of the Neshaminy to the Blue mountains. Markham paid for it as follows :

" 350 ffathoms of Wampum, 20 white Blankits, 20 ffathoms of Strawed waters, 60 ffathoms of Duffields, 20 Kettles, 4 whereof large, 20 gunns, 20 Coates, 40 Shirts, 40 payre of Stockings, 40 Howes, 40 Axes, 2 Barrels of Powder, 200 Barres of Lead, 200 Knives, 200 small Glasses, 12 Payre of Shoes, 40 Copper Boxes, 40 Tobacco Tonngs, 2 small Barrels of Pipes, 40 payre of Scissors, 40 Combs, 24 pounds Red Lead, 100 Aules, 2 handfulls of ffish-hooks, 2 handfulls of Needles, 40 pounds of Shott, 10 Bundles of Beads, 10 small Saws, 12 Drawing Knives, 4 anchers of Tobacco, 2 anchers of Rumme, 2 anchers of Syder, 2 anchers of Beere and 300 Gilders."

Markham also held some conferences with the Indians, simply to cultivate peace and friendship. On these occasions he would read to them a letter from Penn, in which he said :

"I have great love and regard for you, and desire to win and gain your love and friendship by a kind, just and peaceable life; and the people I send are of the same mind, and shall in all things behave themselves accordingly."

Having made every arrangement for his own departure, Penn took an affectionate leave of his wife and children and went on board the good ship *Welcome*, September 1, 1682. The number of passengers was about one hundred, mostly Quakers who had been his neighbors in Sussex, England. Some thirty died of small-pox, and were buried in the sea. Otherwise the voyage was uneventful. Penn greatly endeared himself to the company by his kind and untiring ministrations to the sick and dying. After six weeks, land was sighted on the coast of New Jersey, about Egg Harbor. In passing up the Delaware, the Dutch and Swedes, now his subjects, received him with great joy. He landed at New Castle, October 27. Here, the next day, he

Penn's Arrival

called the people together in the Dutch court house and took legal possession of the country, assuring the inhabitants of liberty of conscience and of civil freedom.

Two days later Penn went to Upland to call *the First General Assembly* *first general assembly*. He changed the name of Upland to *Chester*, in honor of his friend Pearson, a companion on the *Welcome*, who had lived in Chester, England. Upland was the home of most of the immigrants from England who had preceded the *Welcome*, and their hospitality knew no bounds except their scanty means.

From Chester, Penn, with a few others, traveled up the Delaware in an open boat, in the *Penn's Treaty* early days of November, when the banks of the river had been freshly painted with colors mixed by Autumn's hands. His mission was to meet the Indians and publicly ratify the Treaty of Eternal Friendship, which Markham and his associates had previously made. When he arrived at Shackamaxon, the Indians had already filled the woods as far as the eye could see. After the chiefs had arranged themselves in the form of a half-moon, Penn, with no mark of power save a blue sash around his waist, addressed them in the name of the Great Spirit, who made and rules all mankind:

"We meet on the broad pathway of good faith and good will; no advantage shall be taken on either side, but all shall be openness and love. I will not call you children, for parents chide their children too severely; nor brothers only, for brothers differ. The friendship between me and you I will not compare to a chain; for that the rains might rust or the falling tree might break. We are the same as if one man's body were to be divided into two parts; we are all one flesh and blood."

After receiving some presents from Penn, the Indians gave the belt of wampum and solemnly pledged themselves to live in love with him and his children as long as the sun and moon should endure. "This," says Voltaire, "was the only treaty between these people and the Christians that was made without an oath, and that was never broken." Penn had many other conferences of this kind with the Indians, and he was kindly remembered by them for years. At a meeting between Governor Keith and the Five Nations, held at Conestoga in 1721, the spokesman of the Indians said: "We shall never forget the counsel that William Penn gave us; though we cannot write, as the English, yet we can keep in the memory what was said in our councils." So faithful were they to him that not a drop of Quaker blood was shed by them while he lived.

The Elm Tree under which the treaty was made afterwards became celebrated. The British General Simcoe, who was once quartered *The Treaty Elm* near it in the Revolutionary War, so respected it that when his soldiers were cutting down trees for firewood, he placed a guard under it. A storm blew it down in 1810, and it was found to have been two hundred and eighty-three years old. Its site, marked by a monument erected in 1827, is now surrounded by a beautiful park. The statue of William Penn on the tower of City Hall, Philadelphia, faces in the direction of the Elm in Kensington, and silently admonishes the people of Pennsylvania to be true to the principles of its founder.

After the treaty was made, Penn proceeded up the Delaware to see the mansion which Markham was

building for him at Pennsbury, Bucks county. It was erected at great expense, and remained the marvel of the neighborhood for many years, but Penn and his family lived in it only a short time, from 1700 to 1701. It was afterwards neglected, and just before the Revolution its crumbling walls were removed and the ground on which it stood passed out of the Penn family.

When the time for the first meeting of the General Assembly had arrived, Penn returned to **The Province Formed** Chester. During a three days' session, the machinery of government was set up and put into operation; the Dutch, Swedes, and foreigners of all description, were naturalized; and the Province of Pennsylvania was a complete fact. The "holy experiment," as Penn called his new state, had been begun. Having fairly purchased some land from the natives, he made a survey of it, and divided it into three counties—Philadelphia, Bucks, and Chester. The first was named after the city then building; the second, after Buckinghamshire, the land of Penn's ancestors; and the third after his friend Pearson's native city.

Bucks and Chester had definite boundaries; but **The Three Original Counties** Philadelphia embraced the whole province between them,—north, northwest, and northeast,—to an indefinite extent. The northern boundary of Bucks extended to the Kittatinny (Blue) mountains, "or as far as the land might be purchased from the Indians." Chester included the territory southwest of the Schuylkill to the extreme limits of the province. By the formation of Berks, in 1752, the northern boundary of Philadelphia was limited;

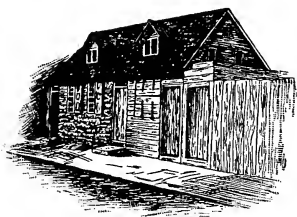
and when, in 1784, Montgomery was erected, the largest county became the smallest.

"The great town" in Pennsylvania was to be near the junction of the Delaware and the Schuylkill. The navigability of both rivers, especially of the Delaware, the abundance of brick-earth and building-stone, the beauty of the location,—these and other circumstances put Philadelphia near the Indian village of Quequenaku, "the grove of the long pine trees." The ground was in the possession of a few Swedes, who were readily induced to exchange it for land elsewhere.

The plan of Philadelphia was so well conceived that there is no other city in the United States in which a stranger can so easily find his way. With few exceptions, the streets cross each other at right angles. Those originally running east and west—nine in number—were all named after the various kinds of trees in the forest around, as, Vine, Spruce, Pine, Sassafras, Willow, Chestnut, Walnut, etc.; those running north and south—twenty-three altogether—were numbered from the Delaware, Front street to Broad street, and from the Schuylkill, Front street to Broad street. In the center of the city was to be a square of ten acres, each corner of which was to be reserved for public offices. In each quarter of the city, there was to be another square of eight acres, to be used by the people like the Moorfields in London. These public squares, though not located as planned, are all in Philadelphia today, and constitute pleasant oases in the center of a vast extent of brick and stone. The city was named after a town in Lydia, Asia Minor, the seat of one of the

seven early Christian churches. *Philadelphia* signifies "brotherly love."

Few of the settlers of Philadelphia had the time or the means to build houses before the winter of 1682-83 set in; hence many of them lived like conies, in caves dug under the high bluff on the river-front between Vine and Walnut streets. The next year nearly one hundred houses were built,



An Old House, 1685.

sheltering more than five hundred inhabitants; and two years afterwards six hundred houses had displaced the trees and thickets of the forest. The Swedes and Indians were very kind to the infant colony, the former sharing their shelter and the latter their game.

Some well-to-do settlers had brought with them houses in frame, tools, implements, and furniture, as well as food and raiment to last them for some time after their arrival. The poorer classes had to put up mere huts, made from timber freshly cut in the forest. Penn furnished a general plan for their construction,—30 x 18 feet, partitioned in the middle, covered and lined with clapboards and the intervening space filled with earth, the ground floor of clay and the upper of wood, and the roof of clapboard also. Philadelphia in a few years gained more in population than New York did in half a century. Penn was so happy over his success that he congratulated himself in these words:

"I must without vanity, say, that I have led the greatest colony into America that ever any man did upon private credit, and the most prosperous beginnings that ever were made anywhere are to be found among us."

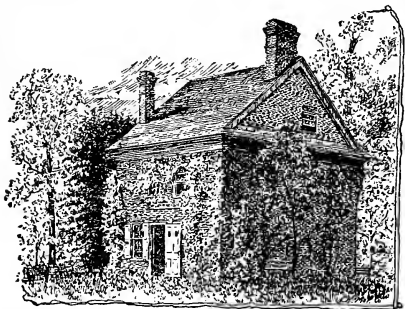
Not all of Penn's brethren settled in Philadelphia. Many, as they landed, distributed themselves through the country. They were thinly scattered from the Falls of Trenton to Chester. The leading settlements were at Byberry, a noted suburb of Philadelphia in colonial times; at Bristol, the second chartered borough in Pennsylvania; at Pennsbury, the site of Penn's country residence; at Chester, the first seat of government; at Birmingham, the township in which the battle of Brandywine was fought; at Kennett, which, as Letitia's Manor, had originally been surveyed for Penn's daughter Letitia; and at Marcus Hook, where the first Friends' meeting was established. Fortunately for those who arrived in the first ships, the winter was mild and open, and they all cleared enough land to plant a crop of Indian corn in the spring. The following extract from a letter of Richard Townsend, who went out with William Penn, shows how the rural settlers fared:

"After our arrival we found the country a wilderness. The inhabitants were Indians and Swedes, who received us in a friendly manner and brought us provisions at very reasonable rates. After some time, I set up a mill on Chester creek, which I brought ready framed from London, which served for grinding of corn and sawing of boards. Besides, I made a net and caught great quantities of fish, which supplied ourselves and many others; so that, notwithstanding, it was thought that nearly three thousand persons came in the first year, we were so providentially provided for that we could buy a deer for two shillings, and a large turkey for one shilling, and Indian corn for two shillings and sixpence a bushel."

The government having been organized, peace with the natives confirmed, the fundamental law established, and courts of justice instituted, Penn, in August, 1684, sailed for England, with this

Penn's
Departure

parting prayer upon his lips: "And thou, Philadelphia, the virgin settlement of this province, my soul prays to God for thee, that thou mayest stand in the day of

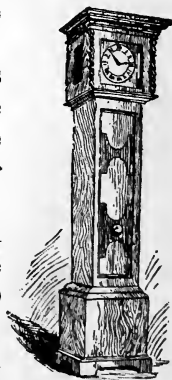


William Penn House.
In Fairmount Park, Philadelphia.

trial, and that thy children may be blessed." His family, his estate, and certain matters pertaining to his colony, especially the boundary between it and Maryland, made his return necessary. These affairs kept him in England till 1699.

When he returned, Philadelphia had more than two thousand houses; and he walked the streets almost a stranger. He found that his influence was not what it had been when he left, fifteen years before. However, he was warmly welcomed by the Indians. He made two journeys at this time to the interior of the province. He sailed for England in October, 1701, where a riotous son and an unfaithful steward had plunged him so deeply into debt that he had to mortgage his province for 6,600 pounds and suffer imprisonment besides. Penn negotiated to sell his right in the government to the Crown, but was stricken with paralysis, in 1712.

He died six years later; but his name will live as long as Father Time remembers the history of Pennsylvania.



Penn's Clock.
In the Philadelphia
Library.

The Friends originally differed little in dress from the other non-conformists to the Church of England. They all opposed the display then so much made by the upper classes. When the Friends started as a sect, broad-brimmed hats were common, and so were coats with straight collars. The *drab* they chose as their color because it differed least from the uncolored state of cloth. They respected all honorable occupations alike. William Penn wanted his children to become husbandmen and housewives, and one of his sons learned the trade of a linen draper. Laborers were not looked upon as drudges, though it must be admitted that some of them were slaves. However, the Friends, as early as 1693, advised that none should "buy except to free." Not far from Frankford was an old tombstone, the inscription on which says that the occupant of the grave, Friend Sandiford, "bore testimony against the Negro trade."

The Friends have always been noted for intelligence. Within three years of Penn's landing, a printing press was running in Philadelphia. One of its earliest publications was an almanac, printed in the year 1685. William Bradford brought with him from England type, a press, printing paper, and ink, to set up the trade of printing Friends' books. The first newspaper, "The American Weekly Murcury," was started in Philadelphia December 22, 1719, at which time there were only two others in the colonies, namely, in Boston. Penn established a post office in 1683; and in 1717, there was a settled route from Virginia and Maryland to Philadelphia and to all the northern colonies. Pennsylvania was even then the Keystone Province. The botanic garden of John

Characteristics
of the Friends

Marks of
Intelligence

Bartram, whom Linnæus called "the greatest natural botanist in the world," became a Mecca for scientists, and many a visitor to Philadelphia inquired his way



Old Cypress in Bartram's Garden.

to Bartram's garden, on the Schuylkill. As to schools, the Friends favored an elementary education for all alike — the rich and the poor; but they were opposed to great scholarship; yet now they have a Bryn Mawr, a Haverford and a Swarthmore College. Art and poetry were also under the ban of their doctrine; yet there arose among them a West and a Taylor.

The chief immigration of the Friends took place before the year 1700. Up to that time **Other English Settlers** they were the most numerous class of people in the province. Other English settlers, however, had found their way to Pennsylvania, but in much smaller numbers. Chief among these were the Episcopalians, or people of the Church of England, some of whom arrived soon after Penn. By the charter of the province they had the right to establish a parish whenever twenty or more petitioned for one. This was done in 1695, and Christ church, with its first bell hung in the crotch of a tree, was built on

Second street, north of Market. The present brick building, so full of historic interest, was begun in 1727 and completed in 1755. Benjamin Franklin was one of the managers of the lottery (a method quite

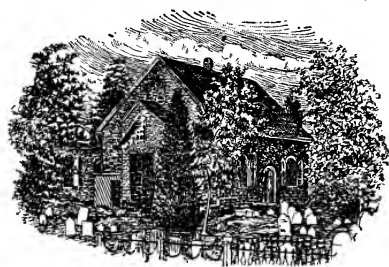


Christ Church.

common in those days for raising church funds) by which money was secured for the steeple and the chimes. On July 4, 1776, these chimes, the second in America, joined the old bell on Independence Hall in proclaiming "liberty throughout the land unto all the inhabitants thereof."

Washington worshipped in this church frequently, and the pew in which he sat was presented to Independence Hall. In the chancel were buried the remains of John Penn (afterwards removed to England), Bishop White, Robert Morris, General Forbes, and other distinguished men. In the graveyard at Fifth and Arch, Franklin and his wife Deborah, General James Irvine, Peyton Randolph, president of the first Continental Congress, Francis Hopkinson, Commodore Bainbridge, and others noted in their country's history, lie at rest. The first regular minister of Christ church was Rev. Thomas Clayton, under whose ministrations the membership increased to seven hundred in two years. Rev. Jacob Duché, who opened the first Continental Congress with that remarkable prayer (see p. 146), officiated at the time of the Revolution. His successor, Rev. William White, served as rector till 1836.

At first the Episcopalians spread rapidly over the province, but most of them lived in Philadelphia, where they became very prominent in political and social life. Some of the Quaker



St. David's, at Radnor.

families joined them, among whom were the sons of Penn. They also absorbed most of the Swedish population, and the Gloria Dei at Wicaco, as well as other Swedish churches, became their property. Around

Philadelphia, they quite early organized several congregations. At Radnor, St. David's church is to

this day a most interesting relic of colonial history, for it is well-nigh two hundred years old. Other places where the Episcopalians were in sufficient numbers to have church organizations were Chester, Bristol, Perkiomen, Pequea and Lancaster.

THE GERMANS

As William Penn offered impartial liberty of conscience to all who were under religious oppression, Pennsylvania was "an asylum to the good and oppressed of every nation." The Germans, after the Friends, were the first to become interested in his "holy experiment." Penn, whose mother was a Dutch woman, had twice been traveling in Holland and Germany, preaching the doctrine of the "inner light," first in the year 1671, and again in 1677, when he was accompanied by George Fox and several others. Their preaching made them many devoted friends in various denominations; but they were most kindly received by the Mennonites. These people, like the Friends, took not the sword, swore not at all, were non-resistant, and in dress and speech were plain and in manners simple. The transition between the two sects was easy. Quakers in some instances became Mennonites, and Mennonites became Quakers. Having thus become associates in religion while still in Europe, it was natural that the two sects should become neighbors in the wilds of America. The Mennonites had been driven up and down the Rhine by persecution for a century and a half, and they now gladly braved the dangers of the sea to find a haven of rest beyond it.

Penn Travels
in Holland
and Germany

Before Penn had come to America, one Jacob Telner, of Crefeld, a town on the Rhine just outside of Holland, had made a voyage to America some time between 1678 and 1681. This was the first step in the settlement of Germantown by the Mennonites. Furthermore, twenty years before Penn's arrival, in 1662, a small company of about twenty-five Dutch Mennonites had settled on Delaware bay. They were scattered and destroyed by the English when that country was taken from the Dutch. The leader and his wife escaped; and after wandering in the wilderness many years, they came to Germantown, where they were cared for by their brethren.

Telner, early in 1682, organized a company among his neighbors and bought a large tract of land near Philadelphia. Another company in Germany, the Frankfort Company, had also made large purchases; but none of these from Frankfort, except Francis Daniel Pastorius, Whittier's "Pennsylvania Pilgrim," settled here. This distinguished man came to Philadelphia August 20, 1683, and, like many of the settlers, dwelt for a time in a cave. He was a great scholar, having mastered seven or eight languages and being well read in science and philosophy. He was the American representative of both German companies, and with thirteen families of Crefelders, comprising thirty-three persons, founded Germantown. The Crefelders arrived six weeks after Pastorius, October 6, on the ship *Concord*, with passports written on parchment in golden ink. A few days afterwards, fourteen divisions of land were measured off, and the German pioneers repaired to the cave of Pastorius

to draw lots for the choice of location. Cellars were at once dug and huts built over them. William Penn was present when the first two-story house was erected, and helped to eat the raising dinner. Other immigrants began to arrive in the little town soon afterwards. Peter Schumacher was the first to come from Krisheim, in the Palatinate, where the fruits of Penn's early preaching were more bountiful than anywhere else in Germany or Holland.

The early dwellers of Germantown had a hard struggle with poverty. Pastorius tells us that the settlement was so poor that it Early Struggles became the subject of a pun, and was called "Armentown." He said that it would not be believed by coming generations in what want and need, and with what Christian contentment and persistent industry, Germantown started. He himself had to use oiled paper to let the light into his house, and over the door he had written: "Parva domus, amica bonis, procul este profani." At the end of the first year, the settlers had improved their condition materially: they had harvested a good crop of Indian corn and buckwheat, and had added a few comforts to their houses.

However, Germantown was not a settlement of farmers, but of weavers. Pastorius selected for Germantown Industries the town seal a clover, with a vine on one of its leaves, a stalk of flax on another, and a spool of thread on the third; the motto on it was—"Vinum, Linum, et Textrinum." It was a place—

"Where lives High German and Low Dutch,
Whose trade in weaving linen cloth is much.
There grows the flax, as also you may know
That from the same they do divide the tow."

So many of the Mennonites in Europe had been weavers, that certain woven and knit fabrics were known as Mennonite goods. Other manufactures sprung up in and around Germantown, for the settlers were nearly all skilled workmen. William Rittinghuysen, a minister from Holland, in 1690 built the first paper mill in America, on a branch of the Wissahickon. In it was made the paper used by the earliest printer in the middle colonies, William Bradford. Then there were lace makers, silversmiths, printers, and other artisans. The settlers of Germantown contributed not a little toward making Philadelphia the leading manufacturing city of the American continent.

The Mennonites of Germantown enjoy one proud distinction. They were the first people in America to suggest the abolition of slavery. In 1688, under the auspices of Pastorius, they sent a petition to the yearly meeting of the Friends, saying, in effect, that it was not Christian-like to buy and keep negroes; but no positive judgment was then given by the meeting. The petition was a quaint and curious paper:

Germantown was the hub of the German settlement in Pennsylvania for many years. In

The Pietists

1694 the Pietists, for whom Pastorius had formed a warm attachment in Germany, settled on the Wissahickon. They were noted for their piety, learning



House in which Slavery Protest was signed.

and mysticism. They spent much time in prayer and pious meditation, for which purpose they had caves in the rugged ravine of the Wissahickon. They put up a building, designed for religious and educational purposes, on the highest point of their land. It was surmounted with an observatory, the first in the province. On top of this was raised the mystic symbol—a cross within a circle—in such a position that the rays of the rising sun would flood it with a roseate hue. Later, in 1734, a massive stone structure was built farther up the stream; it is still known as the “monastery on the Wissahickon.” One of their associates, Christoph Saur, published a newspaper which circulated among all the Germans in the colonies, from New York to Georgia. He printed the German bible as early as 1743, about forty years before the English bible was printed in America, and he was among the first to print a magazine on this side of the Atlantic. He made his type, paper and ink, and bound his own books. He also issued an almanac, which, together with his paper, made him a great power among the Germans in America, especially among those in Pennsylvania.

Germantown also became the original home of the Tunkers, or German Baptists, in America; but they did not arrive until 1719. *The Tunkers* Christoph Saur, son of Christoph, the publisher, became an elder in this denomination. As the successor to his father's business, he was a prominent man in the province. With others of his sect, he took an active part in the establishment of the Germantown Academy. Through his almanacs and other publications, he too, was widely known outside of Pennsylvania.

After 1700, German immigration to Pennsylvania was no longer confined to those who had been influenced by Penn's visit to the continent. The English government now encouraged the Germans to come to America to add strength to its population for competition with the French. The Golden Book of Queen Anne, which gave glowing accounts of the colonies, was circulated far and wide in the German states.

In 1708 and 1709, large numbers crossed to England and were temporarily sheltered in tents on the commons of London while waiting for transportation to America. Pennsylvania was the favorite colony with the Germans, and by the year 1725 fifty thousand had made their way hither. "We shall soon have a German colony," wrote James Logan, the Provincial Secretary in 1726, "so many thousands of Germans are already in the country." Fears were entertained that the province might not remain loyal to the English government. Immigrants came from the German side of Switzerland and Holland, from Swabia, Alsace, and Saxony, but most from the Palatinate. There the ruler was now of one church, then of another, and with every change the people had to conform or suffer. So many German immigrants were from the Palatinate that the name *Palatine* was given to all of them. Thus Whittier's poem about the ship that was wrecked on Block Island, in 1738, was named "The Palatine."

As many of the so-called Palatines were too poor to pay for the passage across the sea, they were hired out for a term of years to pay for their transportation. Such were called

German
Immigration
Increases

German
Redemptioners

"redemptioners." In many cases parents pledged their children in this manner.

These later German settlers pressed out into the wilderness, and left Philadelphia and the country around it to the English and to the Germans in and about Germantown. They

filled the Lehigh and Schuylkill valleys, settling in Easton, Northampton town (Allentown), Reading, Lebanon, and Lancaster. Thence they pushed on to the Susquehanna, down into the Cumberland valley and up into the Juniata and Susquehanna valleys.

By 1750, the Germans constituted one-third of the entire colony, which numbered about 270,000 people. Today they form the bulk of the population in many counties, and there is no section of the State in which scattered German families may not be found.

The Germans who thus pushed into the wilderness were of various religious denominations.

The Schwenkfelders, who, like the Friends, Mennonites and Tunkers, opposed war, oaths and display, settled on contiguous lands in Montgomery, Lehigh and Berks, in 1734, where they live today, numbering all told less than a thousand. They still celebrate the anniversary of their arrival as a day of thanksgiving. They had been the victims of perse-

**The Germans
on the Frontier**



A Colonial Homestead near
Germantown.

**Various
Religious
Denominations**

cution in Europe for more than three hundred years, and had to worship in secret to prevent detection. Hence they became accustomed to worship in private houses, and for fifty years after their arrival in Pennsylvania they had few public meeting-houses. There was no ringing of bells and chanting of hymns.

The Moravians settled in Northampton county, at Nazareth, in 1739, and at Bethlehem in 1741. They had first gone to Georgia, but that province wanted them to do military duty, which their conscience forbade. Their leader was Count Zinzendorf, a man well known in Europe and America. They were communists, and carried on about thirty trades for the benefit of the church. They even sailed several ships on the sea. Bethlehem lay along the line of travel from New England to the South,



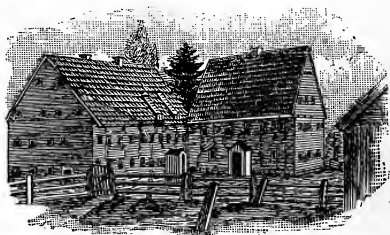
Moravian Sun Inn.

and its Moravian inns were famous throughout the land for their hospitality. The "Sun" entertained under its roof most of the leading men of the country as long as they traveled by stage. The great work of the Moravians for the province was the conversion of Indi-

ans, the fruits of which were largely destroyed by the French and Indian war. Much of what we know of Indian life in Pennsylvania was recorded by the

Moravian missionaries, notably by Heckewelder. The schools of this pious sect were also widely known, and many young ladies and gentlemen from far and wide received their education in them.

Another equally unique settlement was made at Ephrata, Lancaster county, by a branch of the Tunkers of Germantown, known as the Ephrata Seventh Day Baptists. Their leader was Conrad Beisel, a Pietist. His settlement became known as the Monastery of Ephrata, on the Cocalico creek, and some of its strange buildings are still standing. There was a house for the brothers and a house for the sisters. Among the numerous manu-



Brothers' and Sisters' Houses at Ephrata.

facturing industries was a printing house. Some forty books of a religious and educational character were printed in it, besides many tracts and hymns. Just before the battle of Germantown, three wagon loads of books in sheets were seized there for cartridges. While the Continental Congress sat at York, this printing house struck off paper money for the government. There was a school in the place that attracted pupils as far away as Philadelphia and Baltimore. Its rooms were used as a hospital for American soldiers after the battle of the Brandywine. Peter Miller, second prior of the monastery, was one of the most learned men in America. He translated the Declaration of Independence into seven languages by order of Congress.

The Mennonites that came to Pennsylvania after 1700, settled in upper Bucks, Montgomery, Chester, and Lancaster counties. Numerous other German sects came to Pennsylvania which it is not essential to describe. It was said that every sect in the world had followers in Pennsylvania.

The Germans remaining to be considered were the church people—the Reformed and the Lutherans. They did not arrive in large numbers until about 1725. Some four hundred Reformed settled along the Skippack, in Montgomery county, in 1727. Others followed, and in 1747 Rev. Michael Schlatter organized the Reformed Church of Pennsylvania as a part of the Synod of Holland. The Lutherans, who began to arrive soon after the Reformed, were much more numerous. Their leader was Henry Melchoir Muhlenberg. He was the father of Peter, the general of the Revolution; of Frederick, the first Speaker of the House of Representatives; and of Gotthilf, the botanist. Muhlenberg came to America in 1742, and, with the two churches at New Hanover and New Providence, in Montgomery county, as a nucleus, he organized the Lutheran Church of America. The congregation at the former place is supposed to be the oldest of this denomination in the United States. Muhlenberg and his son Peter are buried in the graveyard of this church. As larger numbers of Reformed and Lutherans had come to America before their leaders, and scattered through half a dozen counties in search of a place to work and live, their organization into congregations was a tedious and difficult task. However, it was a good work, for the sound of church bells reminded the settlers of their higher duties.

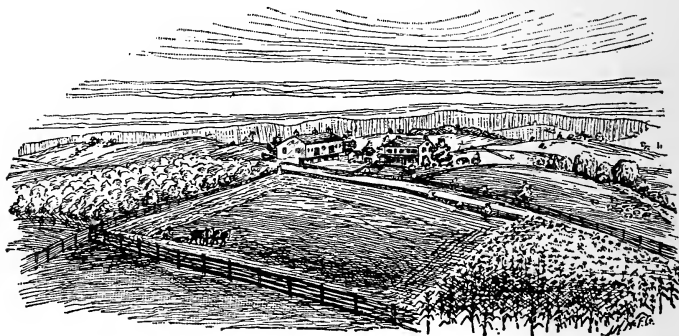
The followers of Schlatter and Muhlenberg were always quite friendly with each other ; in rural districts, they commonly worshipped in the same church. The school house was generally



To Church on Horseback.

the companion of the church. Having been established churches in Germany, the Reformed and the Lutherans had an educated and paid ministry ; hence colleges to educate the ministry were founded as soon as the means were at hand. Frequently those who looked forward to the ministry were sent to Germany to be educated. The Reformed and Lutherans also made an effort to spread the English language among the Germans. Muhlenberg himself taught English, and was careful to have his sons educated in it before sending them to Germany. Schlatter raised a fund in England, Holland and Germany for teaching the Pennsylvania Germans English. Under the direction of a board of trustees composed of members of the provincial government, he established schools in Reading, York, Easton, Lancaster, New Hanover and Skippack. These began their existence in 1754, but died out in 1763 for want of support.

In colonial days, agriculture was the chief occupation. Then governors, lawmakers, and magistrates were farmers. Even in the early history of the Republic, presidents, congressmen, and framers of constitutions were followers of the plow. In this occupation, the Pennsylvania Germans excelled, and they therefore clung to the soil and to rural life with great tenacity. They were good judges of land; they worked hard, and practiced severe economy. They cleared the land that had the heaviest timber, for they knew it would produce the heaviest crops; and they often grew rich where others had be-



A Lebanon Valley Farm.

come poor. They contributed much to the material wealth of the State. Their farms are not surpassed anywhere in the world.

Coming here in numbers large enough to form a colony of their own, sequestering themselves in the country, and settling entire counties exclusively, the Germans naturally kept their own language, literature and customs. Be-

The German
Language in
Pennsylvania

fore the postal system, the newspaper, the railroad, the telegraph, and other means of swift communication, had enabled the people of distant parts to know one another, a settlement so large as that of the Germans yielded very slowly to changes from the outside. In our day such isolation is no longer possible, and they are fast acquiring the use of the English language for all purposes—the home, the school, and the church.

Though the Pennsylvania Germans in some respects remained Germans outwardly for two centuries, they are Americans at heart. They help to administer the local government, and hundreds have sat in the General Assembly. Eight have occupied the gubernatorial chair, and many have written their names on the national roll of honor. They have been in both houses of Congress, in the Speaker's chair, and in the President's Cabinet. Through their industry and frugality, they have contributed a large share to the material resources of the State. In time of war they have likewise done their duty. In 1775, they shared the honor with their Scotch-Irish neighbors on the frontier of being among the first troops called by the Continental Congress—expert riflemen raised in Pennsylvania, Maryland and Virginia. The rifle, which was then unknown in New England, had been brought to Pennsylvania by the Swiss and Palatines, about 1700. Nor should it be forgotten that the Moravian missionaries, both in the French and in the Revolutionary wars, warded off many a fatal blow from the tomahawk; and that Conrad Weiser, interpreter and agent of Indian affairs in the province, was a host in himself in the management of the savages.

THE WELSH

The Welsh began to come in 1682, soon after the colony had been planted; but their immigration practically ceased with the close of the century. Dr. Thomas Wynne, Penn's friend and physician, and a few others, came in the *Welcome*. These people settled on a large tract of land along the ridge extending back from the Schuylkill as far as Paoli. Their settlement was called the Welsh Barony; it has since been known as the Welsh Tract. The three townships in the tract were Merion, Haverford and Radnor. As their number increased they spread out into other townships. Some went as far west as Lancaster county, and gave their name to the Welsh mountains there; others located as far east as Gwynedd and Penllyn, north of Philadelphia. In passing along the Pennsylvania railroad, beginning with Berwyn, various stations commemorate Welsh names of two hundred years ago. Bryn Mawr—the great hill—was the home of Minister Rowland. Wynnewood honors the name of Doctor Wynne, whose profession reminds us of the fact that nearly all the early physicians of the colony were Welshmen. George Washington's physician was the great-grandson of Dr. Wynne. The father of our State and the "father of our country" entrusted their lives to the care of Welsh physicians. The name of Montgomery county was brought from Wales, and Blue Ball tells of the numerous inns along the Lancaster pike—a great historic highway that had its beginning in the trail made through the forest by the first wandering Welshman.

The Welsh, like the settlers of Germantown, came to Pennsylvania to form a settlement in which they could regulate their own affairs. Their Purpose

Being the descendants of the ancient Britons, dwelling in a separate corner of England, and speaking a distinct language, their purpose was very natural. Most of them were Friends, and had known William Penn in England. Though at first they could not understand the English language, they soon absorbed it, and lost their outward identity. Several things helped to bring this about. One was the schism made among them by Friend George Keith, who seems to have had a special hatred for the Welsh Brethren. Another trouble was the division of their barony. In the absence of Penn, it was divided between Philadelphia and Chester counties. Later on, when the Welsh objected to the quit-rents on their unoccupied lands, the Welsh Tract was thrown open to everybody.

Most names of the Welsh settlers have likewise become Anglicized. Thus, ap John (*ap* meaning *son of*) became John's (son) or Jones; ap Edward, Edwards; ap William, Williams; ap Robert, Roberts; others, as ap Hugh, became Pugh, ap Howell, Powell, etc. Thomas Lloyd, deputy-governor of the province, was a Welshman, and so were the Cadwaladers, Merediths and Owenses. Welsh Names

THE SCOTCH-IRISH

The Scotch-Irish were people from Scotland who had gone to Ireland to occupy the lands taken from Irish rebels by Queen Elizabeth and James I. In religion they were Presbyteri- Their Origin and Settlements

ans, and by occupation, farmers. They were drawn to Pennsylvania by its fame for religious liberty and fertility of soil. They began to arrive soon after 1700, the earliest ones settling in the lower part of Chester and Lancaster counties. About 1720, the settlement containing the famous Log College was made on the Neshaminy, in Bucks county. Another body located at the Forks of the Delaware, in Northampton county; these had first gone to New Hampshire, but found the climate too cold. Donegal, Lancaster county, and Paxtang, Derry, and Hanover, Dauphin county, were Scotch-Irish localities at one time; but the Cumberland valley received the greatest number.

Being an aggressive people, collisions with the Germans frequently occurred. The officials of
 As
 Frontiersmen the province therefore encouraged the Germans to locate in the eastern parts and the Scotch-Irish to go westward. This arrangement was agreeable; for the Scotch-Irish were the very men to face the wilderness and resist the attacks of wild beasts and savage men. When, in 1768, the land beyond the Alleghenies was thrown open for settlement, they welcomed the opportunity thus presented of planting the standard of progress a few hundred miles further into the pathless forest.

Acting thus as pioneers, their conduct towards the
 Relations with
 the Indians Indians was as warlike as that of the Quakers had been peaceful. The experience of their forefathers in Ireland was a school for frontier life of a more aggressive kind than had existed while the Quakers and Germans faced the Red Man. The Indians had now been driven farther and farther west by the tidal wave of immigration, and

peace was hard to maintain. When the French and Indian war broke out, the Scotch-Irish settlers on the frontier had to face many a fatal attack, for some of which they had themselves to blame. Their disturbance of the peace policy of the province caused the Quakers to form a dislike for them. Hence we find that these two classes of people at one time waged a bitter war of words.

When, in 1763, Pontiac's war broke out along the frontier of Pennsylvania and Virginia, the Rev. John Elder, of the Paxtang church, "The Paxtang Boys" by authority of the province, organized several companies of rangers—volunteer bands of frontiersmen—to protect the settlers against Indian atrocities. They did duty as far north as Wyoming; but their main service was performed along the Susquehanna south of the Blue mountains. Here some Indians committed deed after deed of bloody violence; but where they came from was a mystery. Suspicion was awakened that they were harbored by the Christian Indians—the refuse of various tribes—who lived on the Manor, a tract of land near Columbia, belonging to the Penns. Colonel Elder, John Harris, the founder of Harrisburg, and others, asked John Penn, the Governor, to remove these Indians, whose character, it was claimed, did not put them above suspicion. The Governor declined to do this, on the ground that they were "innocent, helpless, and dependent on the government for support." The "Paxtang Boys" then resolved to take the law into their own hands, but not without the protest of Colonel Elder. They went to the settlement at night, but their presence was prematurely announced by the dogs. The dwellers of the Manor rushed out of their

wigwams and wildly brandished their tomahawks. The rangers leveled their guns and quickly killed the Indians. But not all of them were at home, and when those absent learned of the fate of their brethren, they hastened to Lancaster and sought safety in the jail. A few made their way to Philadelphia. Chagrined at the escape of some of the Indians, the rangers resolved to complete their work. They went to Lancaster, broke into the jail, and shot the fugitive Conestogas. After that, the settlers south of the Blue mountains had little annoyance from the Indians.

However, the end of the excitement had not yet come. The Governor and the Assembly condemned the action of the "Paxtang Boys" so severely that the frontiersmen sent a delegation to explain their grievances. This was interpreted to mean a show of force. The authorities in Philadelphia put the Indian refugees under guard in the garri-son, and sent an armed force to Germantown to meet the delegation. The latter made known their grievances, and were then conducted to Philadelphia. Among other things, the "Paxtang Boys" objected to being tried in Philadelphia, Bucks or Chester, which the government proposed to do. Though the Assembly did not yield this point, yet no conviction for the killing of the Conestoga Indians was ever had.

It is true, the Scotch-Irish allowed their rough, vigorous and independent qualities to lead them into excesses at times; yet these qualities made them a power in the land. The hardships and dangers which they braved on the frontier gave them grit and strength; and, now that time has

**A Panic in
Philadelphia**

Characteristics

polished the exterior, they are strong and shining pillars in the structure of the state and nation. In colonial times, they were in a formative period; when the Revolution came, they were ready and eager for the struggle that tried men's souls and sinews. The French war was an excellent school for drilling the Continental soldiers; but none were better drilled than the Scotch-Irish of Pennsylvania—a fact well known to the Continental Congress, in 1775.

THE FRENCH HUGUENOTS

Pennsylvania also became a refuge for sundry French families of the persecuted Huguenots. They bore the names of Dubois, Boileau, Laroux, Lefevre, De Turk, De-llér, Dox, Ferree, and others. They came here, under the influence of William Penn, to plant vineyards and cultivate grapes "up the Schuylkill." Not succeeding there, they removed to the Pequea valley, then in Chester county, now in Lancaster. The removal was brought about by the arrival in 1712 of Madame Ferree, a widow who had lost her husband in the massacres in France which followed the revocation of the Edict of Nantes. She had fled to England, and was there aided in her immigration to Pennsylvania by William Penn. He gave her a grant of two thousand acres of land in Pequea valley, and she bought two thousand more. To this place all the French people went for settlement. They were heartily welcomed by some Delaware Indians there, and when the Indian chief died, the Huguenots attended the burial. His grave, on Lafayette Hill, near Paradise, was marked with a pile of stones,

Their Settlement

which long remained to mark the spot. The descendants of these French families are found chiefly in Berks, Lancaster and Dauphin counties.

Though the settlers of Pennsylvania were of various sects, churches, and nationalities, which at times had quarrels more or less serious, we, their heirs and descendants, know no such differences in the discharge of our duties to the government. We are all Pennsylvanians now; and the question whether a citizen is English, German, Welsh, Scotch-Irish, or French, happily never enters our mind. Nor do we inquire into his religious preferences. With us today it is—

"The union of hearts, the union of hands,
And the flag of our Union forever."

BOOKS FOR READING AND CONSULTATION

Egle's *History of Pennsylvania*, pp. 28-52, 438-453, 517-546, 612-682, 814-854, 863-879, 950-960, 965-996, 1015-1048, and 1169-1180; Bancroft's *History of the United States*, Vol. II, pp. 78-130; Walton and Brumbaugh's *Stories of Pennsylvania*, pp. 9-79 and 297-300; Sypher's *History of Pennsylvania*, pp. 9-46; Fisher's *Making of Pennsylvania*, pp. 7-236; Stoughton's *William Penn*, *passim*; Sache's *The Fatherland*, *passim*; Diffenderfer's *German Exodus*; Bowden's *History of The Friends*, Part II, pp. 1-221; Glenn's *Merion in the Welsh Tract*, pp. 1-55; *The Eighth Congress of the Scotch-Irish in America*, pp. 71-82.

CHAPTER III

THE GROWTH OF POPULATION AND THE ADJUSTMENT OF BOUNDARIES

In the settlement of Pennsylvania we noticed a double wave of population sweeping in from the southeast; the Scotch-Irish, with their daring energy and restlessness, in advance, and the Germans, with their plodding industry and steadfastness, following and permanently occupying the soil. This movement is most plainly recorded in the Kittatinny valley. Throughout its length—from Easton to Maryland—are found places and grave-stones bearing Scotch-Irish names. These people entered the Kittatinny valley at various points, about the year 1730. Between 1745 and 1750, they passed through the gaps west of the Susquehanna. Thence they rapidly followed the main streams toward the north and west. The Germans began to arrive in greatest numbers about the year 1740, the time when the Scotch-Irish immigration had reached its height. In many places the Germans succeeded to the lands formerly occupied by the Scotch-Irish. It was the onward flow

A Double
Movement



Derry Church (1729), Dauphin
County.

of these two classes of people that caused a demand for land, and made the Indian purchases from 1736 to 1758 necessary (see map, p. 6). Easton, Allentown (called Northamptontown till about 1800), Reading, Lebanon, Harrisburg, York (called Yorktown and Little York), Carlisle, and Shippensburg (except York, the oldest town west of the Susquehanna), were all founded within these years.

Under Penn and his sons, there were three divisions of their land in the province: first, the
Divisions of the Land common lands, constituting the bulk of it, and selling at a uniform price, which up to 1713 was five pounds per hundred acres, and one shilling quit-rent, but later, double and triple this amount; second, the Proprietary tenths, or manors, reserved and held by the Proprietary; third, the private estates of the individual members of the Proprietary, purchased from one another or from other persons. The quit-rents were paid by the tenant to be "quit and free" from all feudal service; and they were used to pay the expenses of the government. They ranged in value from a pepper-corn, a red rose, an Indian arrow, a buck's foot, a bear skin, or a bushel of wheat, to several shillings per hundred acres. From the beginning there was difficulty with the payment of quit-rents; some refused to pay them, while others neglected to pay them, or, paying them, did not get a proper credit. Thousands of persons settled without any titles to their lands. Many of these afterwards secured titles, but some did not. In 1797 a law was passed requiring the present owners of such unpatented lands to satisfy the State's claims; but the law was allowed to go by default.

After the Declaration of Independence the State, in 1779, annulled the Royal Charter, and paid the Penns 130,000 pounds sterling for their rights in the common lands. They retained, however, their manors and their private property, and so were still the largest landowners in the State. The larger part of what remains of the old Penn manors is in and around Wilkes-Barre — in the Sunbury manor, in Plymouth, Salem and Jackson townships. The Penn estate also owns about three dozen ground-rents in northern Philadelphia, in what was the Manor of Springettsbury, and one irredeemable ground-rent on property in Race street near Twenty-first. This, with some reversionary rights in ground granted by Penn for public buildings, is the sum total of possessions in Pennsylvania now belonging to the heirs of Penn. They had also, until within a few years, received from the British government an annuity of 4,000 pounds for their losses in the Revolution.

Penn's policy in purchasing lands from the Indians was always an honest one. His sons, though in the main carrying out their father's policy, had to deal with a greater and more difficult problem. They had to satisfy the Red Man when it became evident that the white man would eventually have the last foot of soil in Pennsylvania: Hence, some of the later land dealings were not free from injustice. This was the case with the historic "walking purchase."

It was the custom of the Indians to measure land by walking or riding on horseback. In 1686, William Penn bought a tract of land along the Delaware, extending "back into the woods

as far as man can go in one day and a half." When the white settlers reached the Lehigh hills, below Easton, the Indians became uneasy, and wanted the walk performed. The time fixed for it was September 19, 1737; and the starting point, a tree near Wrightstown, Bucks county. The Proprietary had employed three men—Marshall, Yeates and Jennings—all fleet on foot; and the Delaware Indians, three men. The walkers were under the supervision of the sheriff of Bucks county and the surveyor-general of Pennsylvania, and were accompanied by a number of spectators, some of whom carried refreshments. The walkers kept a northerly course on the Durham road to Durham creek, thence, a northwesterly course; they forded the Lehigh at 2 o'clock in the afternoon, and reached the Hockendauqua at sunset. Jennings and two of the Indians had given out the first day; hence the others resumed the walk alone the next morning. Having passed through the Lehigh Water Gap, Marshall, the only one who finished the walk, reached a spur of the Broad mountain at 12 o'clock. The distance gone over in the day and a-half was about sixty miles.

Instead of running the shortest line from the end of the walk to the Delaware, the surveyor
Its Extent went northeast and struck the mouth of the Lackawaxen, thus securing for the Proprietary the Forks of the Delaware, on the south side of the Blue mountains, and the Minisink Flats, on the north side—both rich and desirable tracts of land (see map, p. 6). The entire "walking purchase" included the upper portion of Bucks, nearly all of Northampton, and parts of Carbon, Monroe and Pike—an area of not less than 1,200 square miles:

The Delawares complained that the walk was not fair—that instead of by the compass across the country, it should have been up the Delaware by the nearest path, as was done by William Penn and their fathers when they tramped leisurely together for a day and a half to determine the northern limit of Markham's purchase of 1682. The Indians in the party also objected to the pace of the white walkers, frequently calling to the latter to *walk* not to *run*. One of them said afterwards: "No sit down to smoke, no shoot a squirrel, but *lun, lun lun*, all day long." It is stated that it took the surveyor-general afterwards four days to walk over the same ground. Jennings and Yeates both were supposed to have died from the effects of the walk. Marshall alone was none the worse, for he died at the ripe old age of ninety.

At the time of the "walking purchase," the Delaware Indians held their council fires at the Minisink Flats. Here, on the Pocono, was born the celebrated chief, Tedyuscung, called "Honest John" by the English. When his lands had been wrested from him by the "walk," more especially by the line to the Lackawaxen, the Six Nations, urged by the Governor of Pennsylvania, in 1742 ordered the Delawares to remove to Wyoming and Shamokin, on the Susquehanna. The Six Nations characterized the Delawares as "women," and not empowered to sell lands. Tedyuscung protested; but the Iroquois said, "Don't deliberate, but remove away." The wrong rankled in the hearts of the Delawares like a smothered fire; and when the French and Indian war broke out, they openly took sides with the French, and

helped to desolate the frontier. By the time of the Revolution, they, together with the Shawanese, who had dwelt opposite Wyoming, had all been driven to the Ohio river.

Tedyuscung, at a council held at Easton in 1758, by the help of the Quakers established the fact that the Indians had been wronged by the "walking purchase" and other land transactions. He showed that the Six Nations had given land to the Delawares, and then "sold it from under their feet" to the whites. As a result of this conference, a large tract of land on the Susquehanna, Juniata, Allegheny, and Ohio rivers, which had been purchased from the Six Nations under a misapprehension, at Albany in 1754 (see p. 66), was restored to the Indians, and many causes of misunderstanding were removed (see map, p. 6). Had these wrongs been righted sooner, or, better still, never been committed, "the blood of Braddock's soldiers would not have been added to the price of the land."

While Pennsylvanians were thus pressing forward and occupying the virgin soil from the southeast through the Delaware and Lehigh valleys, New Englanders advanced from the northeast. The charter of Connecticut, like that of Massachusetts, Virginia, North and South Carolina, and Georgia, defined its western boundary to be the Pacific ocean. Its southern boundary was to be a straight line beginning at the mouth of Narragansett bay. This, extended west, would have entered Pennsylvania near Stroudsburg and crossed the Susquehanna at Bloomsburg. Penn's charter fixed the northern boundary of his province at the forty-second degree of latitude.

A large strip of territory was thus granted to both Connecticut and Pennsylvania.

In 1753, an association of New Englanders, mostly from Connecticut, called the Susquehanna Company, was formed to make a settlement in the territory of Pennsylvania claimed by Connecticut. The beautiful valley upon the Susquehanna, where eleven years before Tedyuscung and his tribe had built the town of Wyoming, was selected for the purpose. The next year, at the general congress at Albany, the Susquehanna Company purchased from the Six Nations the lands upon the Susquehanna north of the Blue mountains. Pennsylvania protested against the purchase, claiming that it had not been made in open council, but had been effected by making the Indian chiefs drunk. As the congress had been called to form a union of the colonies with the Six Nations as allies against the French, the purchase was not then seriously opposed. Besides, Pennsylvania bought a large tract of land from the Six Nations at the same time, and in a way not satisfactory to the Indians.

About the close of the French and Indian war, a company of Connecticut settlers arrived in the Wyoming valley; and, before winter set in, extensive fields of wheat had been sown upon lands covered with forest trees in August. But owing to the scantiness of provisions, the settlers returned to Connecticut for the winter. Early the next year, in 1763, they returned, accompanied by many others. Notwithstanding the remonstrances of Northampton county, to which the Wyoming valley then belonged, settlements were made at Wilkes-Barre, Kingston, Plymouth and Hanover. The summer passed

with nothing to mar the peace and contentment of the New Englanders; but in October, the Indians fell upon them like a thunderbolt from a clear sky, and killed about twenty of their number. The others fled—some back to Connecticut, some to New York. This is known in history as the first massacre of Wyoming. It was the work of the Delawares, whom the wily Iroquois had made believe that Tedyuscung had been assassinated by the whites.

The flow of immigration, so violently and suddenly checked, did not begin again till 1768. That year, at Fort Stanwix, New York, a large tract of land, including Wyoming, was bought from the Six Nations by the Proprietary, to strengthen its claim to the disputed territory (see map, p. 6). Pennsylvania settlers now arrived and laid out two manors, one on each side of the Susquehanna, and extending over the farms abandoned by the New Englanders. Early the next year, a party of forty Connecticut men came to resume the settlement made before. They located at Kingston, and after battling with departing winter, enjoyed a peaceful and prosperous summer. The "forty" were under the direction of three men, one of whom was Zebulon Butler; and their fort was known as the "Forty Fort." In October, the sheriff of Northampton county appeared, arrested them and marched them to Easton, where they were lodged in jail. And now the southern and northern waves of population had met in a fierce conflict, known as the "Pennamite and Yankee war." Forts and blockhouses were constructed, and many sieges and skirmishes followed. Both parties led men to prison, drove women and children away, and committed other outrages.

The Connecticut men on the whole were the more successful in this civil strife. They organized a government, made laws, and appointed judges and other officers. Their intention was to form an independent state; but they could not maintain themselves alone against the Pennamites. So in 1774, they attached themselves to Connecticut, as the town (township) of Westmoreland, in the county of Litchfield. Zebulon Butler was one of the judges.

With the outbreak of the Revolution there came a lull in the strife in Wyoming. It was resolved at a public meeting, "That we will unanimously join our brethren of America in the common cause of defending our liberty." Two companies of troops raised in Wyoming joined the Continental army, as a part of the Connecticut Line. However, as soon as independence had been achieved, the old feud broke out in all its former fury. All attacks from the Indians being at an end, swarms of new settlers arrived and added fuel to the fire. Pennsylvania having in 1779, by an act of assembly, succeeded the heirs of Penn in the possession of all vacant territory, now appealed to Congress to settle the dispute. By virtue of the Articles of Confederation, that body appointed a commission for the purpose. It met at Trenton in 1782, and after five weeks of deliberation decided, without giving any reasons, that Connecticut had no right to the land, and that the jurisdiction and preëmption of the same belonged to Pennsylvania.

The settlers were all satisfied with the change of jurisdiction; but when Pennsylvania sought to enforce her preëmption rights another civil struggle ensued, causing such serious trouble

that the militia had to be called out. Colonel Timothy Pickering was deputed to use his influence for the restoration of order. At length, in 1799, after nearly forty years of unparalleled suffering, to which a destructive ice-flood in 1794 had contributed not a little, affairs were amicably arranged by confirming to the Connecticut settlers the titles to their lands on payment of a small price per acre. The Pennsylvania claimants were satisfied by paying them for the farms they had to give up, or by giving them land elsewhere in exchange.

After the settlement of the land difficulties in Wyoming, the valley, which is twenty-one miles long and three miles wide, enjoyed the tranquility of peace. Its rich acres blossomed as the rose. The county of Luzerne, named after the Chevalier de Luzerne, at that time minister from France, had been erected in 1786. Its territory then included parts of Bradford (Ontario originally), Sullivan, Carbon, and all of Susquehanna and Wyoming. Wilkes-Barre, so called in honor of John Wilkes and Colonel Barre, members of the British Parliament and warm friends of the American colonies in the Revolution, was laid out in 1773.

"Delightful Wyoming ! beneath thy skies
The happy shepherd swains had naught to do
But feed their flocks on green declivities,
Or skim, perchance, thy lake with light canoe."

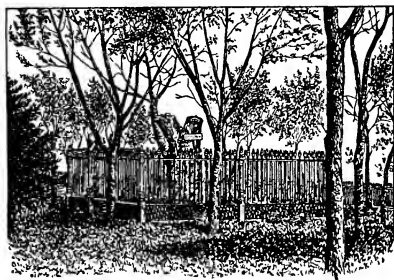
With the exception of the Dutch on the Minisink Flats, the Moravian mission station at Gna-denhütten, near the Lehigh, and a few scattered farms near Orwigsburg, on the Schuylkill, there

Wyoming
Prosper

The Upper
Schuylkill

were no settlements, before the Revolution, between the Wyoming valley and the Blue mountains (see Purchase of 1749, map, p. 6). This tract was not much inhabited until after the discovery of anthracite coal.

The settlement of the Susquehanna valley was begun by John Harris, father of John Harris, the founder of Harrisburg, and the first white child known to have been born in Pennsylvania west of the Conewago hills. The elder Harris came from England quite early, and in 1705 got



Grave of John Harris, Sr., Harrisburg.

permission as a licensed trader "to seat himself on the Susquehanna" and to trade with the Indians of the Conois creek. The lands of the Susquehanna northward to the Blue mountains were finally deeded to the Proprietors by the

Indians, in 1736. Penn had first leased this region from the governor of New York, who had secured it from the Five Nations. The lease was for a thousand years at an annual rental of a "pepper-corn." Soon after the transaction of 1736, a highway, extending from the Delaware to the Susquehanna, was laid out at the request of numerous settlers of Paxtang township, then in Lancaster, now in Dauphin county. In 1749, another purchase was made (see map, p. 6); it opened the Susquehanna valley for settlement some distance beyond the Blue mountains.

Before the white man came to this portion of the province, it had been occupied by the Delawares and Shawanese, under the control of the Five Nations. They had a town of some fifty houses at the fork of the two branches of the Susquehanna, then Shamokin, now Sunbury. It was the residence of Shikellimy, the celebrated Oneida chief, who was the vice-king of the Six Nations in Pennsylvania (see p. 5). Conrad Weiser visited the place as early as 1737, and in 1742 Count Zinzendorf and one or two others made their way thither and received a hearty welcome from Shikellimy. The Indians there were rough, drunken, mischievous fellows, among whom, "Satan seems to have had his seat." The Six Nations asked the governor to send a blacksmith to Shamokin. One was sent by the Moravians at Bethlehem, and he opened the way for a Moravian mission. Soon afterwards white settlers located in the valley below, on both sides of the river. At the outbreak of the French and Indian war these became exposed to Indian attacks, and Fort Augusta was erected at Shamokin to protect them.

Fort Augusta was a very important place of defense in the French and Indian war and in the Revolution. During the former, few settlers ventured beyond it, for it was then the most northern place of defense in the Susquehanna valley beyond the Blue mountains. Northumberland had its beginnings in a public house put up to accommodate those who came to see the land in the new purchase, made at Fort Stanwix, 1768 (see map, p. 6). This was the last purchase under the Proprietaries, and it extended the limits of settlement beyond the forks

Shamokin,
or Sunbury

The Popula-
tion Grows

of the Susquehanna, both along the West and the North branches. But the North Branch beyond Bloomsburg lay in the disputed territory claimed by Connecticut, and was settled from the north. Fort McClure, near Bloomsburg, was built by the famous Indian fighter, Van Campen, and named after the first settler, James McClure, who got a patent for his land in 1772. The settlers at the lower end of the North branch viewed with jealousy the occupation of the neighboring lands of Wyoming by the Yankees. Dr. William Plunket, as magistrate and colonel, in 1775, by authority of the governor, led an expedition against them; but at the Nanticoke Narrows he was met by the enemy and forced to return without accomplishing anything.

Along the West Branch, the stream of population "The Fair-Play" flowing north was much stronger; for Settlement there were few New Englanders ahead to block its way. Quakers from the lower counties settled Pennsborough, now Muncy, named after the Monsey Indians, who inhabited that section of the valley. Fort Muncy was erected near by in 1778; in fact, from Sunbury to Lock Haven, there was a line of forts, and each of them became the scene of many a legend of border warfare. Many Germans and Scotch-Irish also found their way into the pine-clad mountains of this region. There was an uncertainty, for some years after the purchase of 1768, about its exact boundaries. The Proprietaries had forbidden settlement in this doubtful tract; but their proclamation was not heeded. Adventurers took possession of the land and organized a local government. They annually elected in rotation three of their num-

ber, whom they called "fair-play" men, to act as judges in all controversies. From their decisions there was no appeal. Every newcomer had to apply to the "fair-play" men for his land. Any person resisting the enforcement of the "fair-play" code was placed in a canoe, rowed to the mouth of Lycoming creek, and there set adrift. The acts of this unique court were afterwards allowed as evidence in the established courts, and the *bona-fide* settlers between Lycoming and Pine creeks each got three hundred acres of land. A most singular coincidence occurred in the history of these "fair-play" men on July 4, 1776. Early in the summer they had heard that Congress contemplated independence from Great Britain. Accordingly, on the above date, far from the sound of the Liberty Bell, they assembled on Pine creek, and, after some patriotic discussion, passed a set of resolutions declaring themselves *free and independent*.

Northumberland county was erected, in 1772, out of Lancaster, Cumberland, Berks, Northampton and Bedford. It was reduced to its present size by the successive erection of Luzerne, Mifflin, Lycoming, Centre, Columbia and Union counties. Fort Augusta (Sunbury) was made the seat of justice. Lycoming county was not formed until 1795, eleven years after the last purchase from the Indians (see map, p. 89). It comprised originally all of the northwestern part of the State. Williamsport, named probably after William, a son of Michael Ross, upon whose land the county seat was located, was laid out soon after the formation of the county. It is one of the most beautiful towns in Pennsylvania, and is located in a valley of surpassing grandeur and loveliness.

Counties Erected

The Juniata valley was settled largely by Scotch-Irish, who made their way from the Cumberland valley through the gaps in the Blue mountains. A good many Germans also located within its borders; but they were not encouraged to do so. In 1755, the Proprietaries instructed their agents to induce the Scotch-Irish to settle in Cumberland county and the Germans in York, in order to prevent collisions between them. Cumberland county at that time extended "westward of the Susquehanna, and northward and westward of the county of York." It included the Juniata valley, and was afterwards called "Mother Cumberland," because so many counties had been formed from it. The first settlements in the Juniata valley were made a decade or more before 1750. They were established in Sherman's valley, now Perry county, in Tuscarora valley, now Juniata county, and in Aughwick valley, now Fulton county, by pioneers from Carlisle and the Conococheague. But as the lands north of the Blue mountains had not yet been bought from the Indians, the latter complained; and the provincial government ordered the intruders to be driven out and their cabins burned. To this event, "Burnt Cabins," a village in Fulton county, owes its name. Many of the squatters returned, and aroused animosities among the savages, that burned with unquenchable fury during the war that soon broke out. The government, being unable to keep the intruders out, made the Albany purchase in 1754 (see map, p. 6). However, the Indians were still not satisfied. The purchase, contrary to their understanding, included the West Branch of the Susquehanna. Nevertheless, a land office was at once opened for the sale of lands

in the Juniata valley. Small and scattered settlements were made around Lewistown, Huntingdon and Bedford.

The first settlers about Lewistown came from the Conococheague by way of the Aughwick. Settlement of
Juniata Valley They built Fort Granville, which was destroyed by western Indians in 1756, who forced its occupants—soldiers, and some settlers with their families—to make a forced march to Kittanning, whence they never returned. The white man, however, had a strong Indian friend on the Juniata in the person of Logan, the Mingo chief. Huntingdon, long known as Standing Stone, was likewise settled by way of the Aughwick, and is located on the site of the "Standing Stone," whose name may be regarded as a translation of Onojutta-Haga, or the Juniata people, a name found on maps as early as 1659. Conrad Weiser mentioned "Standing Stone" as a curiosity, and John Harris described it as being fourteen feet high and six inches square and containing Indian hieroglyphics. The Indians venerated the "Standing Stone," and probably carried it with them, after the sale of the valley, in 1754. Jack's Narrows, below Huntingdon, is also a place suggestive of interesting history. It is named after Captain Jack Armstrong, who was a friend in need to the people of the Juniata valley on many occasions, and a terror to the Indians. Bedford had its origin in the "Fort at Raystown," to which the settlers could flee for protection against Indian incursions. In 1755, the provincial authorities sent 300 men out to cut a road from Fort Loudon to Bedford, to join Braddock's road west of the Alleghenies. It was completed by General Forbes in 1758, to enable

him to reach Fort Duquesne. Bedford was for many years a military station and a stopping place for adventurers between Carlisle and Fort Pitt. An interesting spot in what is now Blair county is the Sinking Spring valley. It contained lead mines, which were probably known to the French as early as 1750. The Indians of this region were always supplied with an abundance of lead, but where they obtained it was long a secret. In the Revolution, some of the bullets fired at the Redcoats were made from the Sinking Spring lead.

After Braddock's defeat, the Indians fell with merciless fury upon the infant settlements in the Juniata valley, and although the treaty of 1758 (see map, p. 6) had removed the objections to the purchase of 1754, yet savage vengeance reveled in blood till 1764. Carlisle, Shippensburg and Chambersburg were frequently crowded with settlers from the Juniata valley, who had fled with their families, flocks, and furniture to escape the tomahawk and the firebrand. Crops were harvested under the protection of the militia. On one occasion, an entire school in Franklin county—Master Brown and his ten pupils—were murdered while at their books. It was not until Colonel Bouquet had driven the western Indians beyond the Ohio, and made them sue for peace (see p. 137), that the settlers of the Juniata valley could plow their fields, gather their harvests, and eat their bread, without fear of the scalping-knife. From that time until the Revolution, the population grew uninterruptedly. Many Germans from Lancaster county and from Maryland were now attracted by the richness of the limestone valleys.

Indian Rav-
ages in the
Juniata Valley

But during the Revolution there was a return movement. British marauders, with Indian allies, caused many families to remove to eastern counties for safety.

Along the southern border counties east of the mountains, numerous settlers were from The Maryland
Boundary
Maryland. The reason for this was that

the Baltimores laid claim to a part of Pennsylvania north of the present line, and encouraged their people to occupy it. According to his charter, Penn's province was to be bounded on the south by the circumference of a circle whose center was New Castle and whose radius was twelve miles in length, to be drawn from north to west till it reached "the beginning of the fortieth degree." From this point of contact, the boundary line was to extend directly westward five degrees of longitude. Lord Baltimore's charter made the northern boundary of Maryland extend west from that part of Delaware bay "which lieth under the fortieth degree of latitude." The Baltimores contended that the words, "lieth under," were to be taken literally, as if a huge figure 40 lay over sixty geographical miles; that their grant extended over the land between the 39th and 40th parallels. The Penns held that the words, "beginning of the fortieth degree," in their charter, likewise had reference to the entire space between the 39th and 40th parallels; that the 40th degree began at the 39th, just as the first degree may be said to begin at the equator. The width of a degree, therefore, was in dispute, on account of the unfortunate expressions in the two charters. Lord Baltimore, by virtue of his charter, also laid claim to the whole peninsula between the Chesapeake bay and the Atlantic ocean north of a line drawn across from

Watkins' Point. But the phrase, "*hactenus incultas*"—meaning "hitherto uncultivated"—excluded Delaware, because it had been cultivated by the Swedes and Dutch. However, as there were no exact boundaries, the Marylanders were continually encroaching upon "the three lower counties" (Delaware), as well as on the southern border of Pennsylvania.

The dispute dragged its weary length through more than eighty years. Three English sovereigns had to do with the vexatious question. The Proprietors had a few interviews in America, but parted as secret enemies, especially after they had discovered that the 40th parallel did not pass through New Castle, as had been supposed, but much farther north. With Lord Baltimore it was territory; with William Penn it was water frontage on Chesapeake bay. The latter once offered to buy sufficient territory of Baltimore to get a port on the bay, but met with a refusal. The claims were asserted with violence and occasional bloodshed. Settlers refused to pay taxes, because they did not know to whom to pay them.

These conflicts occurred chiefly in "the three lower counties" and in York county, then Lancaster. In 1730, Lord Baltimore sent a bold but pliant adventurer, named Thomas Cresap, to settle in the Conejohela valley, where a number of others had previously located under Maryland grants. Commissioned as a justice of the peace, Cresap came to Wright's ferry and began to build boats and erect a house. He came in conflict with Pennsylvanians across the river, and even sent one to the Annapolis jail. He also attacked John Wright, the foremost Quaker in

Lancaster county, while the latter was reaping grain on the west side of the Susquehanna. Not being able to cope with Wright, Cresap had the governor of Maryland send the militia to his assistance; but the Quaker farmer and his Scotch-Irish neighbors were more than a match for the Marylanders. Nevertheless, Cresap was a disturbing element for some time. Finally, in 1736, the sheriff of Lancaster county captured the disturber of the peace by firing his house. He was taken to Philadelphia in triumph and lodged in jail. Maryland then sent an armed force of three hundred men into the Susquehanna valley. After more bloodshed, these were driven back, and all efforts to colonize that part of Pennsylvania with Marylanders were abandoned in 1738.

Soon after these quarrels in York county had begun, mutual agreements were made, in 1732, to settle the boundaries as follows (see any Settlement
Proposed map of the Middle States): That a semicircle should be drawn at twelve miles from New Castle, obedient to the charter of Pennsylvania; that a line should be run from Cape Henlopen directly west to the exact center of the peninsula, and a perpendicular be drawn northward from the western end of said line till it touched the extreme point of the circumference, thus making a tangent; that from this point again a line be traced due north till it reached a point fifteen statute miles south of the most southerly point of Philadelphia; that, starting at the northern end of this line, another be drawn directly west five degrees, the western limit of Pennsylvania. As the western lands were then unsettled, it was agreed to run the last-named line only twenty-five miles beyond the

Susquehanna at that time. When everything was in readiness, a dispute arose as to the length of the circumference, and the matter hung fire till 1739, when what is known as the "temporary line" was run westward of the Susquehanna as far as the Kittatinny hills. The dispute then got into the Court of Chancery, and was not decided until 1750, when the Lord Chancellor ordered the agreement of 1732 to be carried out. The commissioners met and agreed to make the court house at New Castle the center of the circle. But Maryland insisted on a surface measurement of the radius, instead of an astronomical and geometrical measurement. The Penns would not agree to this, and the work was once more put off.

Finally, in 1761, after Chancery had decided in favor of a horizontal measurement, two expert English surveyors, Charles Mason and Jeremiah Dixon, were appointed to run the lines. It took them several years to draw the circle, fix the tangent, and locate the beginning of the southern boundary of Pennsylvania. This boundary, known as Mason and Dixon's line, was extended westward in latitude $39^{\circ} 44'$, for a distance of 230 miles, in the year 1767. At intervals of five miles, the surveyors placed stones marked on the north with the arms of Thomas and Richard Penn, and on the south with the arms of Lord Baltimore. Smaller stones were placed at the end of every mile. Where transportation was no longer possible—beyond the foot of Sideling hill to the summit of the Alleghenies—heaps of stones marked the line; and thence to the end, posts surrounded with stones and earth. The stones used as far as Sideling hill were imported from England.

The Indians being feared, the remainder of the southern boundary of the State was run by other surveyors, in 1782. Mason and Dixon returned to England, but their names became household words in America. Mason and Dixon's line became famous as the division between the free States and the slave States. The little triangular piece of land between the tangent and the semicircle, extending down from the eastern terminus of Mason and Dixon's line, known as the "flat iron," was recently transferred by Pennsylvania to Delaware; but the transaction has not yet been completed by Delaware and Congress.

Virginia, by virtue of her "sea to sea" charter, made an indefinite claim to all lands west and northwest of her coast line. She therefore held that the region about the forks of the Ohio belonged to her. Accordingly, in 1749, the Ohio Land Company, most of whose members were Virginians, two of them being brothers of General Washington, secured from George II a grant of half a million acres on the branches of the Ohio. Its object was to form a barrier against the French, and to establish trade with the Indians. Under its auspices, Christopher Gist, afterwards the companion of Washington on his journey to Fort Le Bœuf, explored the country. With eleven other families, he settled within the present limits of Fayette county. To check the encroachments of the French, a fort was begun in 1754, on the site of Pittsburg; but the enemy captured the Virginians while engaged in its erection, finished it, and named it Fort Duquesne. In the year following its capture by General Forbes (see p.133) it was rebuilt, and named Fort Pitt, in honor of Pitt, the distinguished English statesman.

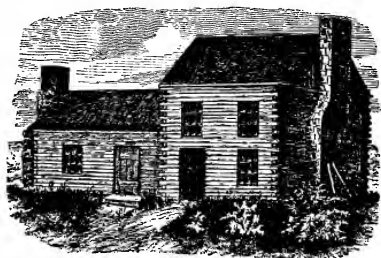
Before 1758, the western part of Pennsylvania could be approached from the east, only by the route of the Juniata and the Kiskiminitas. In that year, Forbes finished as far as the Loyalhanna the road previously begun from Fort Loudon by way of Bedford. This opened the way for numerous settlers from the eastern counties, notably the Scotch-Irish. They located in the Ligonier valley, at Hannastown, and about the forks of the Ohio. With settlers from Maryland and Virginia, they possessed the land in comparative quiet till Pontiac's war. Pittsburg was begun in 1760, and the next year had 104 houses, sheltering 332 persons. But when Pontiac's conspiracy had been hatched, the infant town was cut off from all communication; and had it not been for Colonel Bouquet's victory over the savages at Bushy run, in 1764 (see p. 136), it might have been wiped out of existence. He forced the Indians to withdraw from western Pennsylvania and retire beyond the Ohio. Colonel John Campbell, in 1765, laid out forty squares; but the town was a poor affair then. Nor did it make much progress until after the Revolution. The "proclamation line," by which England, after the French and Indian war, forbade the colonists to settle west of the headwaters of the rivers in the Atlantic basin, interfered with the growth of Pittsburg and the country around it. The settlers of Redstone creek and Cheat river were at one time driven away in pursuance of the proclamation. A law was passed by the Assembly imposing the death penalty, without benefit of clergy, for trespassing upon lands not purchased from the Indians. But nothing daunted the trespassers; they returned again and again. To avoid these recur-

ring difficulties, the purchase at Fort Stanwix was made (see map, p. 6). It opened the country around the Ohio for legitimate settlement. A land office was opened, and a rapid increase of population followed. In 1769, the Penns surveyed a manor of 5,000 acres at Pittsburg and in the country east of it and south of the Monongahela. But the Manor of Pittsburg—as it was called—was not laid out into lots as long as Virginia claimed the land.

A new difficulty arose just before the Revolution. In 1773 the county of Westmoreland, including all of the southwestern portion of the province west of Laurel Hill, was formed. Hannastown, on the old Forbes road, near the present site of Greensburg, was made the county seat. It was the first place in the Mississippi valley where justice was administered by virtue of judicial authority. It was the only collection of houses—about thirty in number—worthy the name of town between Bedford and Pittsburg. When Virginia saw that Pennsylvania was extending jurisdiction over the forks of the Ohio, she renewed her claims to that country. Before the land had been purchased from the Indians, the settlers were so few that no collisions occurred. Now it was otherwise. Lord Dunmore, Governor of Virginia, asserted that Pittsburg was outside of the limits of Pennsylvania. He placed in command Dr. John Connelly, a Pennsylvanian, but a willing tool, who took possession of Fort Pitt and changed its name to Fort Dunmore. Connelly defied the Pennsylvania magistrates and other officers of the State, and commanded the people of Westmoreland county to recognize the authority of Lord Dunmore. Arthur St. Clair, a Penn-

Collisions

sylvania magistrate, had Connelly arrested and bound over to keep the peace. This the Doctor did not do. He got a commission from Virginia to act as justice of



House of Arthur St. Clair.

the peace in Augusta county, which extended over the disputed territory in Pennsylvania. He then appeared at Hannastown with 150 men, all armed and with colors flying, placed sentinels at the door of the court house,

and kept the magistrates from entering. Lord Dunmore now established a court at Fort Pitt, and demanded obedience to its decrees.

The matter next got into Congress, where such men as Jefferson and Henry, of Virginia, and Franklin, of Pennsylvania, advised that the troops be withdrawn. Though this was not done at once, yet the Revolution brought about a more brotherly feeling; and by 1779 the Virginians and Pennsylvanians agreed to a settlement. A commission, on which served the celebrated astronomer, Rittenhouse, was appointed to run the boundary by extending Mason and Dixon's line to its western limit of five degrees. There a meridian was drawn as far north as the Ohio. Wide vistas were cut through the forests over the high hills, and trees were deadened or felled in the valleys. Stones were set up at irregular intervals and marked on the east side with the letter P, and on the west side with the letter V. Ceding her western lands north of the Ohio to

The Settlement

Congress in 1784, Virginia had no further interest in the boundary, and next year Pennsylvania alone extended the meridian to Lake Erie.

After the Revolution, affairs in western Pennsylvania were generally peaceful. The old State road was opened along the trail of Forbes, and numerous villages sprang up along its way. Greensburg was founded on the site of a blockhouse of the Revolution. Hannastown had been wiped off the map of Westmoreland county, July 13, 1782, by one of the most cruel Indian attacks on record. The Indians, under the famous Seneca chief, Kyashuta, arrived from across the Allegheny river early in the morning, applied the torch to the historic village, and carried some of its defenceless inhabitants into captivity. Washington county, which at first included Greene, was cut off from Westmoreland soon after Virginia's claim had been abandoned.

Its original southern population had gained many accessions from Pennsylvania—Scotch-Irish and Germans. Dunkard creek, in Greene county, bears evidence of a German sect that found its way out there from the eastern counties. Fayette county was erected soon after Washington, and it now has within its borders the historic spots



Braddock's Grave.

of Great Meadows, Fort Necessity, and Braddock's grave. Allegheny, which at first included all the territory north and west of the Ohio and Allegheny rivers,

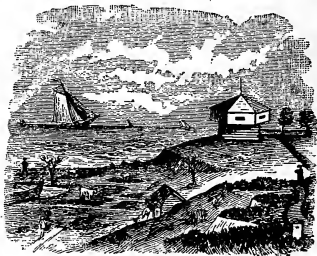
was also formed from the mother county of southwestern Pennsylvania—Westmoreland. The town lots in the Manor of Pittsburg now had a ready sale. Previous to this time, there were few buildings outside the fort, except those occupied by Indian traders and soldiers' families. In 1790 the town contained 200 houses, 2,000 people, one newspaper, and a few manufacturing establishments. But a movement of population then began in the United States that made it grow more rapidly. New Englanders and Virginians, as well as Pennsylvanians, flocked into the Ohio valley because the Northwest Territory had been organized and opened for settlement. Pittsburg became a place of trade with these new and ever-increasing settlements and its future greatness was assured.

The northwestern part of the State, known as the "Indian country" after the French war, constituted the purchase of 1784 (see map, p. 6), by which the Indian title to the last foot of soil in Pennsylvania was extinguished. However, the Indians continued to infest this section until Wayne's treaty at Ft. Greenville, 1795. This put an end to their hostility, and only one chief exercised dominion thereafter within the State. His reservation remains intact today. Gyantwochia, "the cornplanter," became the friend of the settlers after the Revolution, and the State gave him permission to select 1,500 acres of land for himself and his descendants. He chose 640 acres on the west branch of the Allegheny, about fifteen miles above Warren, together with two large islands adjoining. There he located permanently with his family, about 1791; and there his descendants live at the present

The Indians
Disappear from
Pennsylvania

day—the last remnant of the Red Man in Pennsylvania. They farm their land and have a school, which is supported by the State.

The "Indian country" was entered by the white settlers by way of the west branch of the Allegheny and the border of New York. Erie, the oldest and most historic place in it, can boast of the footprints of La Salle, and of the fort of Presque Isle, the first of a number of posts established by the French to make good their "leaden" claims to the Ohio valley (see p. 124). At Ft. Le Boeuf, Washington, at the age of 21, performed his first public service. These points are in the triangle along the shore of Lake Erie. The northern boundary of the State was the



Blockhouse at Erie.

subject of mild dispute between the Penns and New York for nearly fifty years, on account of the vague knowledge of the 42d degree. The charter stated that Pennsylvania should be bounded on the north by the *beginning* of the 43d degree, which was accepted to mean the 42d degree. Occasionally grants of land within territory claimed by the Penns were made by the governor of New York. To avoid such mistakes, a stone, from which the northern boundary was to be determined, was erected in 1775 on an island in the Delaware river. From this point the northern boundary was run in 1787; but it terminated a few miles south of Lake Erie, greatly to the dissatisfaction of Pennsylvania. The line was finally fixed at 42°, and

was ratified by both States in 1789. It terminated in Lake Erie four miles east of where the western boundary terminated, thus giving Pennsylvania only four miles of water frontage. The triangle cut off was included in the cessions made by New York and Massachusetts to the United States. In 1792, Pennsylvania bought it from the Federal government for the sum of \$151,640.50. Three years later, Erie was laid out on Presque Isle; and within a short time afterward the prince, Louis Philippe, heir to the throne which once had jurisdiction of the soil where Erie stands, was entertained in the town.

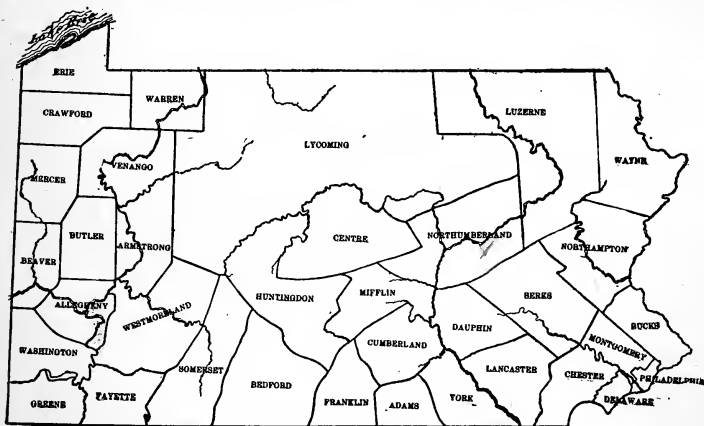
Kittanning, another place familiar in the annals of northwestern Pennsylvania, was originally an Indian village. It marked the western terminus of the Indian path across the mountains from Standing Stone and other points in the Juniata valley. It was destroyed in 1756 by Colonel Armstrong (see p. 131), after whom the county is named. The country around it afterwards became the scene of many of Captain Samuel Brady's encounters with the Indians.

A noted point on the Kittanning path was Cherry Tree, at the present juncture of Cambria, Clearfield, and Indiana counties. It was the head of canoe navigation on the Susquehanna. The Indians would take their canoes out of the stream at Cherry Tree and strike the trail through northern Indiana to Kittanning. It also obtained celebrity as the northern boundary of the Stanwix purchase, and is frequently referred to in old land warrants. A monument has been erected at the place to commemorate its historic associations.

In the Ohio valley, west of Pittsburg, the Moravian missionaries were the first white men to lay the foundations of settlement. Zeisberger and Senseman established a mission, called Friedenstadt, at the junction of the Shenango and Mahoning, in Lawrence county. These pious men had followed their Indian wards all the way from Wyalusing on the Susquehanna, sojourning for awhile among the Monseys in Forest county. Neshannock, Mahoning, and other names of streams in this locality were brought by the Indians from the Delaware valley, where they had known streams of the same name.

After the victory of Wayne, the "Indian country" rapidly became the white man's country. In 1800, "the great new county act" was passed in the Legislature, by which Beaver, Butler,

The Ohio Valley
Eight New Counties



County Map in 1800.

Mercer, Crawford, Erie, Warren, Venango and Armstrong counties were created. Pennsylvania was now

practically settled and conveniently organized under thirty-five county governments.

In 1790 the population of Pennsylvania was 434,373.

Growth of Population The increase from that year to 1800 was 39 per cent, and for each decade thereafter to 1890, respectively, as follows : 34 per cent, 29 per cent, 29 per cent, 28 per cent, 34 per cent, 25 per cent, 21 per cent, 22 per cent, 23 per cent. Owing to the French and Indian war, the Revolution, and the wars in Europe after the Revolution, foreign immigration did not add much to the population of any of the States from 1750 to 1820. Hence the pioneers west of the Alleghenies during those years were mainly of the native stock. However, the movement across the mountains did not amount to much until the decade of financial distress after the Revolution. Then the people on the seaboard flocked westward in such numbers as to threaten the depopulation of the Atlantic States. But the French Revolution checked this movement; for the Americans enjoyed good times then, furnishing supplies of every sort to the nations at war, and carrying them in their own ships, manned by their own sailors. In Pennsylvania, the Delaware and Susquehanna valleys were favored by their easy access to the sea. The State was also the highway to the west for all New Englanders, and Pittsburg was the gateway. A part of the great percentage of increase was due to the emigrant business that sprang up along the route.

From 1800 to 1820, the percentage of increase fell

From 1800 to 1820 considerably. There was a loss of population then, due to the opening of the Northwest Territory for settlement on a credit system, and

to the hard times caused by the incidents of the War of 1812. Both conditions sent endless processions of wagons and foot parties to Ohio and Indiana. Pennsylvania, lying next to this land of promise, would naturally lose heavily in population. Nevertheless, conditions had arisen during these years that made for an increase. The Embargo and Non-Intercourse acts made it necessary for the States to engage in manufacturing. Pennsylvania, with her iron and coal, began to build furnaces and operate mines. Philadelphia and Pittsburgh became centers for the manufacture of all kinds of articles needed by the people of the United States. As the native Americans were not skilled in manufacturing, many Europeans came here to help launch the new industries. After the Napoleonic wars had ceased, armies were disbanded, enormous taxes were laid, and a general depression in trade and agriculture ensued in Europe. This caused a great influx of immigrants between 1815 and 1820, particularly from Great Britain and Ireland. It was at this time that the English, Welsh, Scotch, and Irish, from whom the coal miners were recruited for so many years, began to come to Pennsylvania. So many immigrants from Ireland landed in Philadelphia that the Society of United Irishmen was formed to secure employment for such as wanted to remain in eastern Pennsylvania, and to furnish transportation to those who wanted to go westward.

From 1820 to 1840, internal improvements and the tariff for protection were inaugurated by the United States. This was the era of canal building, steamboat construction, and grading of horse-power railroads. Pennsylvania now

Lumbering
and Mining
Population

became inhabited by the lumberman. Wood-choppers, sawyers, and raftsmen were added to the population. Lock Haven and Williamsport became known as lumbering towns in this period. Lock Haven received its name in 1833 from two *locks* in the canal passing through it, and a *haven* in the river. "Big Water Mill," the first saw mill at Williamsport, was erected in 1839. The protective tariff acts of 1824 and 1828 stimulated manufacturing and created an increased demand for coal and iron. Many more English, Welsh, Scotch, and Irish came to work in the mines and furnaces, especially in the anthracite regions, which had been made accessible by means of canals. The increase of population in Pottsville, in the year 1830, was spoken of in the *Miners' Journal* as "almost unprecedented." Mauch Chunk and the county of Carbon became justly famous through the "black diamond" of the Lehigh valley. Wilkes-Barre became known as the center of the Wyoming coal fields. Scranton, now the fourth city in Pennsylvania, sprang, in 1840, from an abandoned village of five houses. It bore for some time the name of Lackawanna Iron Works.

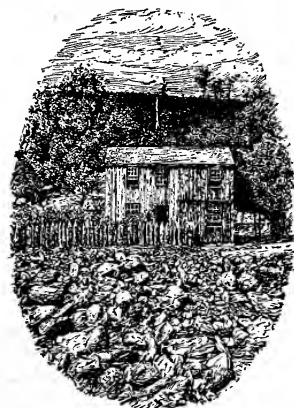
From 1840 to 1850, the population in Pennsylvania increased much more rapidly than it had in any decade since 1800. Foreign immigration to the United States in 1820 amounted to 8,000; this number increased gradually till 1842, when it took a sudden leap, and reached the grand total of 105,000. In 1846, when the potato famine raged in Ireland, the number was 155,000. As this was the era of railroad building, Pennsylvania, with its great trunk line to build over the mountains

and into the coal regions, absorbed an unusually large number, especially of the Irish. The iron and lumber districts, too, added great numbers to their population, both foreigners and Americans, on account of the demand for iron and lumber.

From 1850 to 1860, the percentage of increase fell from 34 to 25. Foreign immigrants now had quick and easy access to the West by means of railroads, and they no longer settled in the Atlantic States. For the same reason many people in the East sold out and went West; while the panic of 1857 forced still others to sell out and make a new start in life on the prairies of the Mississippi valley.

Between 1860 and 1880, there was another great decline in the percentage of increase. This was due to the war for the Union in the sixties and the business stagnation in the seventies. The former kept the people from coming into the State, while the latter drove them out of it. However, during these years, the petroleum industry sprang up in the Allegheny valley. Commencing with Titusville in 1859, an indescribable activity and speculation spread over northwestern Pennsylvania. Adventurers flocked thither from all parts of the country. What is now known as the "oil region" was transformed from an almost unbroken forest into camps and towns in a few short years. Pithole city, now the site of a farm, was, in 1865, next to Philadelphia, the largest post office in the State. Titusville, Oil City, Franklin, Tidioute, Bradford, Parker City, and Corry are all towns wholly or mostly made since the sixties by the petroleum industry.

Since 1880, Pennsylvania has received thousands of immigrants from southern Europe—Poles, Lithuanians, Hungarians and Italians. Down to that time the growth of the mining population was mainly through additions from the English, Welsh, Scotch, Irish, and Germans, either by native increase or by immigration. During the



A Native Miner's Home.

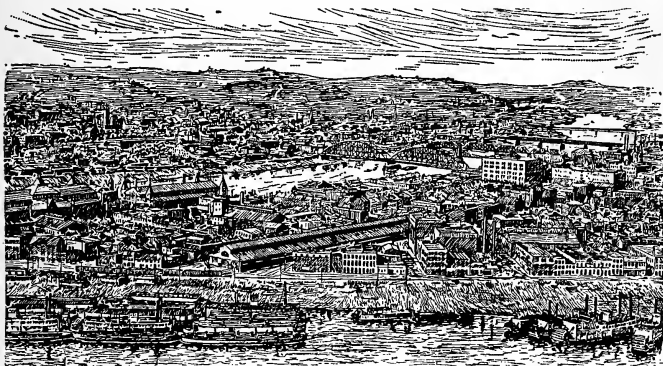
war for the Union, miners' wages were high; but as soon as capital was set free from providing for the armies, large sums were invested in coal fields, and over-production was the consequence. Then wages were reduced. To resist the operators in the reduction of wages, the miners organized in 1868 and 1869, and during the next decade resorted to frequent strikes, either for higher wages or shorter hours. Un-

able to work for lower wages on account of their improved condition of life, the nationalities that had worked in the coal mines for sixty years gave their places to a class of people whose mode of living is much inferior. Many of these were at first brought to America under contract to work for a specified amount; but the alien contract-labor law of 1885 prohibited such a procedure. Nevertheless the Poles, Lithuanians, Hungarians and Italians came into Pennsylvania, and they are found here in large numbers, not alone in the coal fields, but at all sorts of cheap labor in various sections of the State. The census of 1890 showed the number

of these nationalities in the five anthracite counties to have been 28,216, and in 1897 the number in the same region was estimated at 50,000.

There was a large increase in urban population in the State outside of Philadelphia from 1880 to 1890 ; but the rural population was less in some sections, and in many others only slightly greater. While Philadelphia and the State increased only 23 per cent, Pittsburg increased 52 per cent, and the following places more than 100 per cent: Johnstown, McKeesport,

After 1880



Pittsburg and Allegheny.

Pottstown, South Bethlehem, Nanticoke, Steelton, Butler, Braddock, Mount Carmel, Homestead, Du Bois, Milton, Wilkesburg, and Tarentum.

BOOKS FOR READING AND CONSULTATION

Shepherd's *Proprietary Government in Pennsylvania*, Part I ; Fisher's *Making of Pennsylvania*, Chs. x and xi ; Craig's *Olden Time*, Vol. I, pp. 529-552 (Mason and Dixon's Line) ; Miner's *History of Wyoming*, *passim* ; McGinness' *History of the West Branch Valley*, Vol. I, *passim* ; Jones' *History of the Juniata Valley*, *passim* ; Albert's *History of Westmoreland County*, Chs. i-xxxix ; Craig's *History of Pittsburg*, *passim* ; Warner & Co.'s *History of Allegheny County*, Part I, Chs. i-vii.

CHAPTER IV

THE FORM OF GOVERNMENT

The English colonial governments were of three kinds: first, provincial, under which the Crown established the government, appointed the governors, and instructed them how to rule; secondly, proprietary, according to which the Crown granted a tract of land to some individual, called the proprietary, and empowered him to establish the government, appoint the governors, and instruct them how to rule; thirdly, charter, through which the Crown gave the colonists the power to organize a government, elect the governor, and hold him responsible for his acts. All the colonies had a legislature elected by the people, but the laws passed could be vetoed by the governor; or, if approved by him, could be vetoed by the Crown within a period of a few years. The laws were to conform as nearly as possible with the laws of England. The judges were appointed by the governors.

Pennsylvania's government was of the proprietary form. This form had its origin in the feudal system. Pennsylvania was a huge fief bestowed on William Penn by the Crown, granting him the land and giving him jurisdiction, both civil and military. Theoretically, the proprietary and his successors were in possession of many of the ancient

rights of a count palatine; but practically, they were the executors of a democracy.

The preamble of Penn's charter stated his desire to enlarge the British empire, to promote its trade and commerce, and to educate the Indians in the principles of Christianity. Then followed his request for territory in which to form a colony, and for powers of government. To this end the Proprietary was given power to make and publish laws approved by a majority of the freemen, or of their representatives. In case anything should have to be remedied before the first Assembly could meet, the Proprietary alone had power to issue ordinances. To insure loyalty, the charter provided that neither the Proprietary nor the freemen should correspond with any power at war with England, nor should they offend any power at peace with England. Duplicates of all laws should be sent to the Privy Council in England within five years after their enactment; and if not annulled within six months after their reception, they were to remain in force. An agent of the province should reside in London to answer for offenses against England on the part of the Proprietary, and to render satisfaction therefor. Until such satisfaction was rendered the Crown might seize the government.

The charter next provided for the establishment of courts and the appointment of judges by the Proprietary; but the Crown reserved the right to hear appeals. Privileges of commerce and transportation, and the assessment and collection of customs were granted to the Proprietary and the inhabitants of the province. Parliament could levy a tax on

the province without the consent of the "Proprietary or chief governor and assembly." The Proprietary could erect counties and townships and incorporate boroughs and cities; and, as captain-general, he could form a militia and wage war, even beyond the limits of his province. In the event of any misunderstanding about the charter, any word or clause was to be interpreted most favorably to the Proprietary.

Pursuant to the charter, what is known as the The Frame of
Government "Frame of Government" was drawn up by William Penn in England. It was the constitution under which the province of Pennsylvania was organized. He drew it up before the first company of colonists under Markham, the Deputy-Governor, sailed for America. This small party, who were to take possession of Penn's grant of land and prepare for his own coming the next year, signed the Frame of Government before departing, and before Penn himself signed it.

The spirit of Penn's Frame of Government was Its Spirit thoroughly republican. "I will put the power with the people," he said. In the preface are these words:

"I know some say, 'Let us have good laws, and no matter about the men that execute them.' But let them consider that, though good laws do well, good men do better; for good laws want [be in need of] good men; but good men will never want good laws nor suffer [allow] ill ones."

At another place are found these words—they have been inscribed on the walls of the corridor in Independence Hall, side by side with the Declaration of Independence:

"Any government is free to the people under it, whatever be

the form, where the laws rule, and the people are a party to those laws; and more than this is tyranny, oligarchy and confusion."

In speaking of the end of all government, Penn once made use of these words :

"To support power in reverence with the people, and to secure the people from the abuse of power ; that they may be free by their just obedience, and the magistrates honorable for their just administration ; for liberty without obedience is confusion, and obedience without liberty is slavery. To carry this evenness is partly owing to the constitution, and partly to the magistracy ; where either of these fail, government will be subject to convulsion ; but where both are wanting, it must be totally subverted ; then where both meet, the government is like to endure. Which I humbly pray and hope God will please to make the lot of Pennsylvania."

The highest purpose of government, according to Penn's "Frame," is to secure to every person the "free enjoyment of his religious opinions and worship, so long as it does not extend to licentiousness or the



Pennsylvania's Coat of Arms. Originally engraved by Caleb Lowmes, 1778.

destruction of others ; that is, to speak loosely or profanely of God, Christ, and the scriptures or religion, or to commit any moral evil or injury against others." Summing up the principles of government as expressed by Penn, we find that they are about all included in the words—"Virtue, Liberty and Independence"—written on Pennsylvania's coat of arms.

In 1682, Penn had the Frame of Government published ; but it was not identical with the one signed by the colonists who had gone to Pennsylvania under Markham. It consisted of twenty-four articles and forty laws. The government was vested in the Governor and freemen of the province. The freemen were to elect a Provincial Council and a General Assembly. The former was to consist of seventy-two members, to serve for three years ; the latter, of all the freemen the first year, when the Frame was to be accepted, and of two hundred of them the next year—the number to be increased as the population increased, but not to exceed five hundred. The Governor, or his deputy, was to be the perpetual president of the Provincial Council, and was to have a treble vote.

The duty of the Provincial Council was (a) to originate bills, which were to be published thirty days before the Assembly met—a provision based on a principle of the referendum of modern times ; (b) to see that the laws were executed ; (c) to take care of the peace and safety of the province ; (d) to settle the location of ports, cities, market towns, roads, and other public places ; (e) to inspect the public treasury ; (f) to erect courts of justice ; (g) to institute schools ; (h) to reward

authors of useful discoveries; and (i) to summon and dissolve the General Assembly.

The General Assembly had no power to legislate and no privilege to debate. The bills The General Assembly originated and passed by the Council were presented to the Assembly for approval or rejection with a plain "Yes" or "No." It could name persons for sheriffs and justices of the peace for the Governor to select from, being obliged to name twice as many as were to be appointed.

The Frame of Government could not be amended without the consent of the Proprietary, Amendment or his heirs or assigns, and six-sevenths of the freemen in both the Council and Assembly.

There was not much done in the way of establishing a government by Deputy-Governor The Great Law Markham. He administered the affairs of the infant colony at Upland according to instructions. But when Penn himself had arrived, he called the first General Assembly to meet at Upland, December 6th next. No Council having yet been chosen, the Assembly met alone, with Dr. Nicholas More as chairman. Penn presented the "Laws agreed upon in England," and ninety others. Sixty-one of the latter were embodied in the "great law or body of laws of the province of Pennsylvania." Though more than two hundred years have passed since the "Great Law" was enacted at Chester, it still remains, modified to some extent, but not greatly, as a part of the government of our Commonwealth. It allowed freedom of worship to all who acknowledged one God. All members of the government, as well as the voters, had to be qualified in the belief that Jesus Christ is

the son of God and the Saviour of the world. Swearing, cursing, drunkenness, health-drinking, card-playing, scolding, and lying were all prohibited in the Great Law.

In February, 1683, Penn ordered an election for The Government in Philadelphia the members of the Provincial Council, and directed that when the Council should meet at Philadelphia, all the freemen should meet in General Assembly. The object of the session was to consider, amend, and accept the Frame of Government. Aside from a number of other changes, the following ones were made: The Council was made to consist of not less than eighteen members, three from each county, nor more than seventy-two; the Assembly, of not less than thirty-six, six from each county, nor more than two hundred. The treble vote of the Governor was abolished and the veto power granted instead; but he could perform no public act without the consent and advice of the Council, except that Penn had during his lifetime the sole power of appointing officers. Out of fifteen fundamental laws made at this session, nine had been suggested to Penn by his friend, Benjamin Furly, of Holland, the promoter of the first German immigration to Pennsylvania. Furly had greatly preferred the draft signed by Markham's colonists. Said he to Penn: "I prefer thy first draft to the last, as being the most equal, most fair, and most agreeing with the just, wise, and prudent institutions of our ancestors. * * * Indeed, I wonder who should put thee upon altering that for this, and as much how thou couldst ever yield to such a thing." Furley had also suggested an anti-slavery clause.

The Assembly met only once under the new Frame of Government before Penn's return to England. Immediately after his departure, signs of serious trouble between the Council and the Assembly appeared, owing to the greater power of the former in the enactment of laws. The contentions and misunderstandings that arose created prejudices against Penn himself, both here and in London. These were deepened by a religious quarrel, started in Pennsylvania by George Keith, and carried by him to England. The consequence was that Penn was suspected of disloyalty to the Crown. The government of the province was taken from him, 1693, and given to Governor Fletcher, of New York. Penn was unable to ward off this blow, because he was not in favor with the Court of England after James II, his intimate friend, had been driven from the throne. Besides, all the colonies experienced a change in the policy of the British government about this time. A royal governor was sent to Maryland, and Massachusetts had to accept a governor appointed by the King. Pennsylvania was now under the direct control of the Crown, the Frame of Government was disregarded, and the Assembly modeled after that of New York. Fortunately, this state of affairs lasted only about one year in Pennsylvania. The charges against Penn having been disproved, his government was restored to him and he again became Governor, administering affairs through Markham as Deputy.

When Penn returned to Philadelphia, in 1699, he found his colonists rather indifferent to him. Ruling them at so great a distance for a period of fifteen years, had caused mis-

Changes in
the Government

A New Form
of Government

understandings. He soon learned that he must give them a new form of government. So the old Frame was abandoned and the "Charter of Privileges" given in its place. He signed this in 1701. The new document, granted in response to a demand from the people, provided for a General Assembly with much greater powers; namely, to propose matters for legislation, to meet annually, to adjourn itself, to be judge of the election and qualifications of its own members, to redress grievances, and to impeach for misdemeanor in office. It also gave the people the power to elect some of the county officers; and contained a strong plea for liberty of conscience. By it, too, the three lower counties were to have a separate Assembly. The Charter of Privileges was indeed the envy of neighboring colonies, so republican was it in its nature. Philadelphia, on the same day, October 25, 1701, became an incorporated city, with the right to elect its officers, which before had been appointed by the Governor. Through the liberality of Penn, therefore, Philadelphia is the oldest incorporated city in the United States.

Since the Revolution of 1688, it had been a favor-
 Penn Offers to ite project of the Crown to change the
 Sell Pennsylvania proprietary governments to royal ones.
 During Penn's absence in America, a bill was introduced in Parliament to effect the change. Hence he hastened home. Before leaving he appointed Andrew Hamilton Governor, and James Logan Secretary of the province. On his return to England, Penn stopped in Parliament the bill which was to change the proprietorships to royal colonies. But the legal fees required to end this movement, the litigations

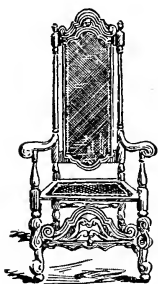
with Lord Baltimore, the dishonesty of Philip Ford, his steward, and the expenses of his family and his province, involved him financially. So he agreed, in 1712, with Queen Anne, to sell Pennsylvania and Delaware for \$60,000. Before the papers could be made out, he was stricken with apoplexy. After his death, there was much litigation over the will. An agreement was finally effected, 1731, by which the three surviving sons of Penn by his second wife, John, Thomas and Richard, became the Proprietors. John died in 1746, Richard in 1771, when the latter's son, John, together with Thomas, became sole Proprietors. Penn's heirs did not manage the estate so well as he had done. They occupied his place, but did not fill it. They were more interested in the revenues of the province than in its welfare. This, however, was natural; for they were comparatively poor, and had heavy debts to pay; moreover, they were Englishmen, and not interested in Pennsylvania's government, as their father had been. They quarreled with the colonists about the taxes and rents; and the Governors had numerous disputes with the General Assembly. On one occasion, 1765, Franklin was sent to England to induce the King to take the province of Pennsylvania as his own, so dissatisfied had the colonists become with the proprietary governors. They preferred to be an "appenage to the Crown rather than a fief of the Penns." But the wrath against the Stamp Act quieted the feeling against the Proprietors, and the movement failed. Besides, the Penns won



James Logan.

back much of the loyalty and affection of the people by an amicable adjustment of disputes.

In 1775 Pennsylvania, in common with the other colonies, made a change in the executive department of its government. By order of the Assembly, Governor Penn, in June, was superseded by the Council of Safety. Such a body of men exercised the executive functions in all the colonies until constitutions were adopted the next year; and it received its authority generally from popular conventions, called the provincial congress. In Pennsylvania, however, it acted by authority of the Assembly. Its chairman was Franklin, and it consisted of twenty-five, afterwards thirty, men, appointed from the various counties in the province.



Penn's Chair.

Among the men on this committee were Benjamin Franklin, Robert Morris, John Dickinson, Anthony Wayne, George Ross, George Clymer, David Rittenhouse and Joseph Reed. It held almost daily sessions, and its duties were many and arduous. It promptly raised the troops requested by Congress, and constructed the Pennsylvania State Navy three months before Congress proposed a Continental Navy. It was the moving power of the province until July 22, 1776.

When there was no further hope that the King would redress the grievances of the colonies, Congress, May 15, 1776, recommended the formation of state governments, that would, "in the opinion of the representatives of the people, best conduce to the happiness and

The Provincial
Convention

safety of their constituents in particular and America in general." The Assembly of Pennsylvania, being composed mainly of adherents to the King, paid no attention to this recommendation. The people then disregarded the Assembly, and called a provincial convention, composed of one hundred and eight members, to meet at Carpenter's Hall, Philadelphia, June 18. This convention approved the recommendation of Congress, and resolved that a constitutional convention of eight representatives from each county should be called to form a new government. This body met July 15, and chose Benjamin Franklin president, and George Ross vice-president. After a session of two months, a constitution was completed, September 28. It was not submitted to the people for ratification, but went into effect at once.

During its session, the constitutional convention assumed supreme authority in the State. It appointed a Council of Safety, to perform the executive duties; it approved the Declaration of Independence, levied heavy taxes on such as refused to bear arms, ordered the courts to proceed against criminals, and appointed justices of the peace. The old Assembly met for the last time September 23, to make one more feeble protest against these proceedings, but it soon died without a struggle. Then Penn's words in the preface to the Frame of Government,—“I will put the power with the people,”—became a complete reality.

Under the first constitution, the General Assembly consisted of only one house. Its members were elected yearly. Its acts were called the “Acts of Assembly,” a name still applied to our

The Old
Assembly Dies

The First
Constitution

laws. The executive power was vested in a President, chosen annually by the Assembly and the Supreme Executive Council. The latter body was composed of twelve members, elected for a term of three years, and it was advisory to the President. Another body



OBVERSE



REVERSE

The Seal of the State of Pennsylvania. Engraved in Paris, 1780.

was provided for,—the Council of Censors, consisting of two persons from each city and county,—whose duty it was, at the end of every seven years, to see whether the constitution had been violated. A Declaration of Rights, a constitutional provision first made in America by Virginia in 1776, and in substance the same as the English Bill of Rights of 1688, was a sacred thing in the first constitution of Pennsylvania, and remains in our organic law to this day. The forms of township and county government remained as Penn instituted them. The right to vote was given to every resident taxpayer.

The average life of a constitution in the United States has been about a third of a century.

Life of a Constitution The forty-five States now in the Union have enforced nearly one hundred and twenty con-

stitutions in that many years. New constitutions become necessary to keep up with the progress of the times. Lord Macaulay once said that "the cause of all revolutions is that while nations move onward constitutions stand still." There are numerous interests now that did not exist in 1776; all these, as they came into prominence, needed the fostering care of a constitution. From 1776 to 1800, there were twenty-six constitutions in force among sixteen States; hence ten of the original constitutions were changed in twenty-five years. Most of these changes were made to secure conformity with the Federal Constitution.

Pennsylvania changed her first constitution in 1790. An upper house was created, and the Assembly deprived of the sole right to make laws. The Supreme Executive Council was abolished and a single executive established, who was to be elected by the people. The judges of the higher courts were to serve during good behavior, instead of for seven years. The Council of Censors was discontinued and the veto power given to the Governor. This body, with Frederick A. Muhlenberg as president, had met but once, in 1783. It then got itself into such a snarl with the Assembly that it became very unpopular. A Declaration of Rights was again incorporated, in 1790. Office-holders still had to believe in God and in a future state of rewards and punishments, but the divine inspirations of the scriptures was not included in their qualifications.

Beginning with the new century, there was a lull in the original States in the making of new constitutions, which lasted until about 1825. During this period a number of new States

The Constitution of 1790

A Lull

came into the Union ; and as rank, station and preferment are unknown in pioneer life, their constitutions greatly extended the rights of the individual. The West thus taught the East a lesson in government which resulted in constitutional changes along the Atlantic coast. Certain economic conditions, too, prevailed about the year 1825 that led to the making of new constitutions on a large scale between that time and 1850. The rapid movements of population into the West, at intervals after 1800, gave rise to the great system of internal improvements, of which the turnpikes and canals are the silent evidences. To raise money for these purposes, numerous banks were organized, paper money was issued, and great financial distress was produced.

Pennsylvania made an effort in 1825 to revise the constitution of 1790, but failed ; and thirteen years elapsed before the work was undertaken. The constitution of 1838 allowed the Governor but two terms of three years each in any nine years ; in general, the powers of the Legislature were enlarged ; nearly all the officers appointed by the Governor were made elective by the people or their representatives ; his nominations of judges were to be confirmed in the senate with open doors ; all life offices were abolished ; the terms of judges were limited to a certain number of years, and were conditioned by good behavior ; the power of the Legislature to grant banking privileges was abridged and regulated ; and the right of suffrage was extended to all white free-men having paid a state or county tax. In the constitution of 1790, the colored man could vote, but now he could not. The revision was ratified by the people.

The Consti-
tution of 1838

The constitution of 1838 remained in force till 1873. The principal reform then necessary was the prohibition of special and local legislation, which had become pernicious and alarming. By referring to Article III, Section 7, of the constitution of 1873, it may be seen what the nature of this legislation was. Large corporations, such as railroad, trust, insurance, mining and manufacturing companies, had been formed under legislative grants of special and exclusive privileges. Hence we find a long article in our present constitution on private corporations. The XVth Amendment of the Federal Constitution made a change necessary in the suffrage clause, which now no longer reads "white freemen," but "every male citizen," having paid a state or county tax. Other vital reforms made were: an increase in the number of senators and representatives, the creation of a Lieutenant-Governor, biennial sessions of the Legislature, minority representation, and the election by the people of all judges and certain other officers.

Having traced the form of government in Pennsylvania from Penn's Frame to the constitution of 1873—through a period of two centuries—we find that the changes which it underwent were demanded by the people and made in their interest.

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Shepherd's *Proprietary Government in Pennsylvania*, Part II; Proud's *History of Pennsylvania*, Chs. i and ii; Fisher's *Evolution of the Constitution of the United States*, Chs. i-iii; Sharpless' *Quaker Experiment in Government*, *passim*; Franklin's *Historical Review of the Constitution and Government of Pennsylvania*; Thorpe's *Constitutional History of the American People*, Vol. I, Chs. ii and iii.

CHAPTER V

THE ADMINISTRATION OF THE GOVERNMENT

THE COLONIAL PERIOD

The Frame of Government having been accepted and the Great Law enacted, the administration of the government began,—and with it the political history of the Province and State of Pennsylvania. The Assembly had no power to originate bills; and the first political struggle of any consequence arose from this defect in the Frame of Government. Bills originated by the Council were frequently rejected by the Assembly, for no good reason except to assert what power it had. The deadlocks thus produced caused great annoyance to the Proprietor. So, in 1688, he sent an entire stranger, Captain John Blackwell, once an officer in Cromwell's army, to act as Governor. But a soldier Governor was not acceptable to the Quakers, and his administration made matters no better. Blackwell had to be recalled; and the whole Council—eighteen in number—with Thomas Lloyd as president, again became Deputy-Governors.

In 1691, six of the councillors from the "three lower counties," or Delaware, formed themselves into a separate Council and made laws. Their acts were declared illegal; but Penn

temporarily satisfied them by appointing William Markham, who sympathized with them, to administer the government of Delaware. Lloyd was made Deputy-Governor of Pennsylvania. Penn yielded to this division of the executive power with great reluctance; for he knew it would help his enemies in their effort to deprive him of the government.

When Fletcher assumed control of Pennsylvania (see p. 103), Lloyd refused to serve under him, and Markham again became Deputy-Gov-
Fletcher's Rule
ernor. Fletcher also displaced the Council with a new one and he got into a conflict with the Assembly about supplies to assist New York in King William's war, and about taxes for the support of the government. This was a new political problem in Pennsylvania; but, as in all the other colonies, it became the problem to be solved by the Revolution. In dealing with it, Pennsylvania employed the same tactics as the other colonies did; namely, to grant the requests of the Governor on condition that he would agree to the laws they wanted. Fletcher's demands finally encroached so much on the Assembly's right to grant its money as it saw fit, that he met with a flat refusal, and had to send the law-makers home.

As soon as Penn had finally departed for England, Delaware began to insist on its right to
Separate
Assembly for
Delaware
a separate Assembly. Governor Hamilton's administration (1701-1703) was almost wholly taken up with attempts to prevent a separation, but Delaware was unyielding. Its first General Assembly met in 1703, and from that time until the Revolution, it had a separate Legislature, but was under the same Governor with Pennsylvania.

Hamilton's successor was John Evans (1704-1709).

Governor Evans

He tried to restore the union between Pennsylvania and Delaware, but sided too much with Delaware to please Pennsylvania. He made himself still more unpopular by denying the right of the Assembly to adjourn at its own pleasure. He was Governor while Queen Anne's war was in progress, and it was feared at one time that French men-of-war would enter the Delaware. Evans knew the doctrine of the Quakers about war, but thought they would fight if they were attacked. So he planned a sham attack. He had a messenger arrive in great haste, with the news that the French were coming up the river. He himself then rode through the streets, entreating the people to arm themselves. Some people became badly scared,—valuables were thrown into wells, vessels sent up the river, and boats secreted in creeks; but most of the Quakers went about their duties as usual.

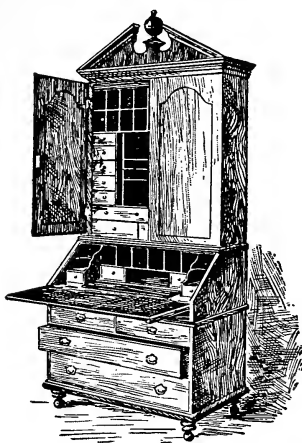
To the feeling of disgust which this piece of folly provoked, was added bitter resentment when the Governor refused to let the Assembly establish a judiciary. Logan, the Secretary of the Province, came in for a share of the blame, and articles of impeachment were drawn up against him. An appeal was made to Penn. that if he did not put an end to the evil practices of his Governor and Secretary, the matter would be carried to the Crown. Complaints were also made by the Quakers because their magistrates had to administer oaths or resign their offices. An order to this effect had been issued by Queen Anne, because it was represented to her that a man might be tried in Pennsylvania for his

life by a judge, jury and witnesses, none of whom had been sworn.

Evans, having lost the respect and confidence of the Quakers, could not cope with all these difficulties. Penn therefore recalled him Governor
Gookin and appointed Charles Gookin Governor, who served from 1709 to 1717. Gookin's first request was for men and money for the expedition against Canada, in Queen Anne's war. The Assembly objected on the ground of conscientious scruples, but voted to make the Queen a present of 500 pounds, and added 200 pounds for the Governor's own use, in case he should redress their grievances. The chief grievance they had was against Logan, whom they blamed for all the evils of Evans' administration. Logan demanded a trial, but it was refused. He then went to London and explained the controversy to Penn, who acquitted him of all blame.

The new Assembly chosen soon afterwards was more friendly to the Proprietary and in Penn's
Rule Ends harmony with the Governor. Gookin agreed to a system of courts, and to the right of the Assembly to adjourn at pleasure. In return a liberal sum of money was voted for the war against France. Gookin, in 1715, also signed a bill substituting affirmations for oaths, and it was in force for five years. Then, according to the Charter, it had to be presented to the Crown for approval, which it failed to get. The law was reënacted at once; but to prevent the colonists from living under it for another five years, Parliament passed an act making an old law of England, which prohibited Quakers from giving evidence in criminal cases, sitting on juries, or

holding any office, apply to all the colonies and so to Pennsylvania. Governor Gookin now sided with those



Penn's Desk.
In the Philadelphia Library.

in the province who were anxious to cripple Quaker rule. He held that the act of Parliament had repealed the recent act of the province. This was too much to be endured, and his recall was demanded. Penn having become too feeble-minded to attend to such matters, Mrs. Penn requested the Governor's resignation. And now neither the voice nor the pen of the founder of Pennsylvania ever again took part in the counsels of his province.

Mrs. Penn appointed Sir William Keith to succeed Governor Gookin. Keith's administration (1717-1726) was very popular with the people but not with the Proprietary. He addressed the Crown on the vexed question of allowing persons to affirm who refused to take an oath. He urged that their scruples should be respected. The King then ratified an act of Parliament to that effect. The Assembly in return agreed to a voluntary militia. Foreign immigration next demanded attention. The Germans and the Scotch-Irish came in such large numbers about this time that their naturalization was not looked upon with favor. A bill brought in provided that applicants must produce a certificate from a justice of the peace certifying to

the amount of property they had and to the nature of their religious faith. The Governor objected to these scrutinies, and the Assembly granted citizenship without them, but laid a duty on all imported foreigners coming to reside in the province. There were many servants among the immigrants. Some of these were poor but respectable, and were willing to serve for a time in order that they might become free afterwards; others were vagrants and felons, sent here as well as to the other colonies, by England. A duty of five pounds was imposed upon the importer of convicted felons.

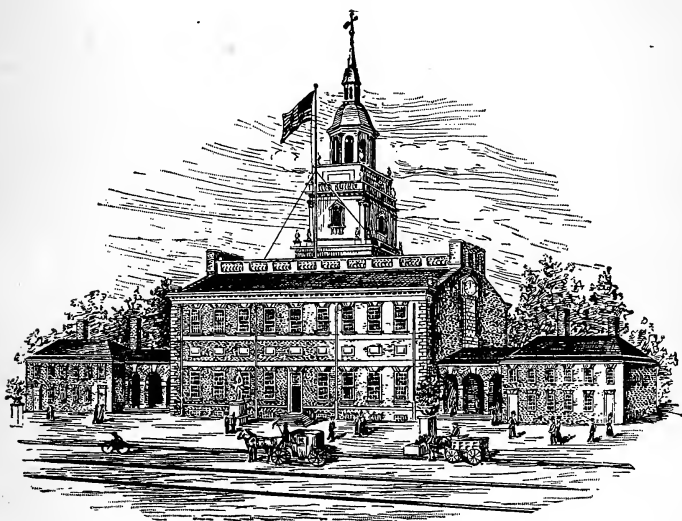
Commerce and finance also engaged the attention of the government about this time. There Commerce
and Finance was not a sufficient demand for the products of the province, consisting chiefly of flour, meats, butter and eggs. So laws were passed to create a home consumption. Brewers and distillers were required to use nothing but home products, and some of these were made a legal tender. Rigid inspection of exports was enforced to improve their demand abroad, especially in the West Indies, where Pennsylvania flour and salt meats sold well. But these remedies did not create a market for all that grew on the fertile farms so rapidly multiplying. Had England allowed her colonies to engage in manufacture, Pennsylvania might have created a home market. As it was, her imports of manufactured articles far exceeded her exports, and the specie was drawn off to pay balances abroad, money became scarce, and financial embarrassment followed. Governor Keith now came forward with a proposition to issue paper money. The Assembly, having full knowledge of the disastrous effects of this kind of currency in other

colonies, acted with great caution, and issued just so much as would supply the place of the specie sent abroad. The issue under Keith amounted to 45,000 pounds, secured on silver plate or land.

Governor Keith was now the idol of the people, but not of Logan and Mrs. Penn, and so he was recalled. His successor was Patrick Gordon, whose wise and successful administration extended from 1726 to his death, in 1736. The five years for which the paper money law could be in operation, without submitting it to the King for approval or rejection, had now expired. The King approved it, but warned the province against an excess of such money. However, more paper was issued. The Assembly had convinced Gordon of its usefulness by reminding him of the fact that while in the other colonies the notes were secured only on the credit of the government, in Pennsylvania they had the additional security of the silver plate or land of the individual to whom they were issued. Other measures of advantage were adopted during Gordon's administration. One was the appointment of a permanent agent to represent the Assembly in London. He was to explain the laws passed, that they might not be vetoed without due consideration. The rapid increase of Swiss and German immigration again demanded attention, even England fearing that Pennsylvania would become a colony of foreigners. A duty of forty shillings per head was laid on all foreign immigrants. But when the Scotch-Irish poured into the province, the Quakers felt the need of the Germans, who generally sided with them in political matters, and the odious law was repealed.

In 1729, the Assembly resolved to build a State House. It had been meeting in a Quaker meeting-house, in a school-house, and in private houses. Work was not commenced until 1732. The building was completed in 1741, though the finishing touches were not put on it till 1745. A part

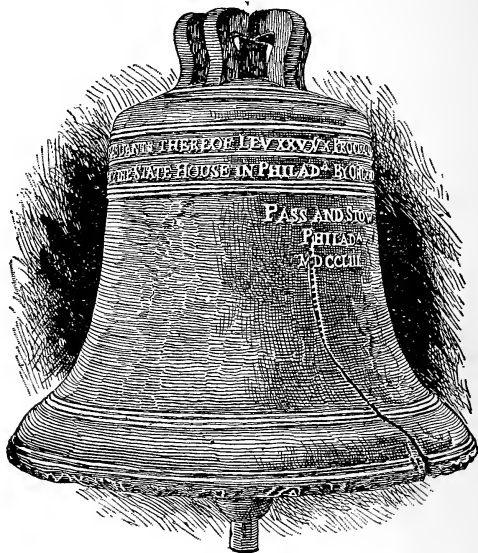
**The State
House Built**



Independence Hall.

of it was occupied by the Assembly in October, 1735. In 1750 an addition was ordered "on the south side, to contain the staircase, with a place therein for hanging a bell." The bell used before was probably brought over by Penn. It had hung on a small belfry in front of the buildings in which the Assembly met. Members of the Assembly who were not present within half an hour after the bell had rung were to

pay "a tenpenny bit." The bell which has come to be known as the Liberty Bell was originally made in London. It was twice recast here, in 1753, on account of a crack it received when "hung up to try the sound." It was then that the words "Proclaim liberty throughout the land, unto all the inhabitants



The Liberty Bell.

thereof," were added. It was again cracked in 1835, while being tolled in memory of Chief Justice Marshall, and it now hangs over the hallway of the old State House.

Little did the Assembly of 1729 dream of the historic scenes that were to be enacted in the Pennsylvania State House. Here, June 28, 1774, resolutions were passed, making common cause

with Boston, denouncing the "port bill," and recommending a congress of all the colonies; here the second Continental Congress met in 1775, and remained, except when the city was held by the British, till 1783; here the Declaration of Independence was passed July 4, 1776, and first publicly read, July 8; here the Articles of Confederation and Perpetual Union were signed July 9, 1778, and finally ratified March 1, 1781; here the Constitution was framed, May 25 to September 17, 1787; here the State convention ratified the Constitution of the United States, December 12, 1787; and here, in the city building on the corner of Sixth and Chestnut streets, Congress sat between 1790 and 1800, and Washington was inaugurated in 1793 and Adams in 1797.

Mrs. Penn having died in 1733, the government became vested in her three surviving sons, The Heirs
of Penn. John, Thomas and Richard. John and Thomas both came to Pennsylvania. John could not remain long, on account of the boundary dispute with Maryland; but Thomas remained in the province nine years. Governor Gordon died while Thomas Penn was still here; and for two years Logan, who had become president of the Council, acted as Governor.

From 1738 to 1747, the governorship was held by George Thomas, a wealthy planter from the Governor
Thomas island of Antiqua. War having been declared between England and Spain, in 1739, Governor Thomas passed through the same experiences that Evans and Gookin had concerning measures of defense. To his request for aid, the Assembly replied that their conscience forbade them to extend it, but that he, as Governor, might organize a voluntary militia without

consulting them. With the aid of Franklin, he soon had more troops than the quota called for; but unfortunately so many of them were redemptioners, anxious to escape from servitude, that the Assembly refused to vote any money unless these were returned to their masters. Thomas was stubborn, and raised funds on the credit of the British government. Then the Assembly had to indemnify the masters for the loss of their servants. It also gave 3,000 pounds to the Crown in aid of the war, but nothing to Thomas. Political divisions now sprang up. Those who sided with Thomas were called the "gentlemen's party;" while those who supported the Assembly were known as the "country party." At an election for the Assembly, in 1742, the "gentlemen's party" was completely routed. Thomas then made peace with the Assembly. He signed the laws passed, and in return got all arrears of salary.

In 1744, King George's war commenced, and Penn-
sylvan-
ia ceased to be a colony of peace.
Peace at
an End
France threatened the province from with-
out, in the effort to take possession of the Ohio
valley, and the Indians threatened it from within
because they had been unjustly deprived of some of
their lands. A battery was erected below Philadel-
phia by means of funds raised by lottery. Conrad
Weiser, the provincial interpreter, was sent among the
Indians to propose a treaty. The Iroquois promised
to prevent the French and their Indian allies—the
Delawares and the Shawanese—from marching through
Iroquois territory to attack the English settlements.
However, the lavishness of French presents and the
memories of the "Walking Purchase" made the set-
tlers on the frontier feel very uneasy.

Governor Thomas, assisted by Franklin and Logan, had no difficulty in raising a volunteer militia. The men who volunteered were called Associators, a name applied for many years to the militia. They carried for the first time the so-called provincial flag of Pennsylvania. It was designed by Franklin, and consisted of a lion holding a cimeter and the shield of the province. The true provincial flag (argent, on a fesse sable, three plates), the banner of the Penns, was never unfurled in Pennsylvania. But its bearings are set up and displayed on the shield of arms in the great seal and on the official acts and proclamations issued by the State's authority. The Assembly, in support of the expedition against Louis-
burg, voted 4,000 pounds "to be expended for bread, beef, pork, flour, wheat and other grain." Fortunately, Pennsylvania was not molested in King George's war, except to be badly frightened.

The Associators



Pennsylvania's
Provincial Flag.

When Thomas resigned, on account of poor health, Anthony Palmer, president of the Council, became acting Governor. The successor was James Hamilton, whose administration extended to the year 1754. He ruled the province at a time when a great storm was gathering. The Indians, incited by French presents and promises of lost hunting grounds, now showed open contempt for the white man of Pennsylvania. The Senecas, on a visit to Philadelphia, killed cattle and robbed orchards, not even sparing the property of Conrad Weiser. Such acts were com-

Governor
Hamilton

mitted to extort presents from the province. In this the wily Indians were successful. The Assembly voted large sums of money on several occasions to quiet them. Nor was this the only expense. The settlers had to be reimbursed for their losses.

Heretofore the Proprietors had borne their share of the expense incurred by Indian conferences and treaties, because quiet on the frontier helped the sale of land. But now, when peace had to be kept by an expensive system of presents, they refused to contribute. They claimed to have given too much already for public defense. Franklin, who was in the Assembly in 1751, drew up the reply to the Proprietors, and warned them that the province might be turned into a royal one. In this dispute were formed the germs of revolution which matured twenty-five years later. A powerful popular party was organized to oppose the Proprietors. Logan, the provincial Secretary for half a century, was dead, and his place was filled by Richard Peters, a man whose sympathies were not with the Quakers. This change made it possible for the breach to grow rapidly wider.

The treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle was simply a truce between the English and the French. While it lasted, the English slept and the French were wide awake. The British government was blind to the designs of the enemy, which had been for fifty years, and still were, to get possession of the Mississippi valley. During the years of peace after 1748, the French explored the valleys of the Allegheny and Ohio rivers, burying leaden plates at the mouths of a number of tributaries, and nailing pieces of tin to trees standing near

The French
in the
Ohio Valley

by, as evidences of claims to the land drained by these rivers. They then erected forts at various places along the route of exploration, and stationed troops therein. One—Presque Isle—was located at the present site of Erie; another—Le Bœuf—at that of Waterford; and still another—Machault—at that of Franklin.

To resist the progress of the French, the Assembly was asked to build a fort at the junction of the Ohio and Allegheny rivers; but the French had so long confined their hostilities against New York and New England, that Pennsylvania felt at ease. Virginia then commenced to build the fort; but the French seized it and, after finishing it, gave it the name of Duquesne. Virginia claimed the territory in which the fort was located, and promptly dispatched Washington on an expedition to drive the French out. Governor Hamilton appealed to the Assembly to join Virginia against the intruders; but that body decided that the French were as yet only in Virginia. After Washington's defeat at Fort Necessity, another appeal was made by Hamilton; but as he insisted on an appropriation of money for the expedition, the Assembly again refused its consent. Rather than yield the right to give money on its own terms, the Assembly refused to give any at all. Nor was Pennsylvania alone in this position. The other colonies, too, withheld money and supplies rather than give up their constitutional rights at the dictation of the Governors.

Hamilton
and the
Assembly

To gain the friendship of the Six Nations, a colonial congress was held at Albany in 1754, by order of the British government. Indian affairs were now taken out of the hands of the

The Albany
Congress

colonies and managed by the mother country through an agent appointed by the Crown. Among Pennsylvania's delegates was Benjamin Franklin. He presented a plan of political union, which, though not accepted, was a step toward the union formed twenty years later. However, the purchase of land from the Indians by the Pennsylvania delegates was not a praiseworthy act. (See p. 6.) When the Indians in Pennsylvania learned that they had been deprived of nearly all the land west of the Susquehanna, they vowed vengeance, and cast their lot with the French.

Such was the threatening attitude of the French and
Governor Morris Indians when, in October, 1754, Hamilton,
weary of his office, resigned, and was succeeded by Robert Hunter Morris. The Assembly now promptly voted 40,000 pounds of paper money, half of which was for the King's use. Morris returned the bill, because he wanted the paper money to be redeemable in five years instead of twelve, as stated in the bill. To prove its loyalty and yet not surrender its absolute rights over money bills, the Assembly, on its own credit, borrowed 5,000 pounds, to be expended in the King's cause. A year later, the same difficulty was solved in the same way. The Governor had secret instructions from the Proprietors not to assent to any money bills unless he could have a voice in disbursing the funds thus raised. But Pennsylvania, as well as the other colonies, contended that those who pay the taxes must have sole power to apply them. That was a principle of English liberty, and the Americans were entitled to all the liberties of Englishmen.

England, perceiving the designs of France to take possession of the Mississippi valley, sent two regiments under General Braddock to America in March, 1755. Pennsylvania was asked for troops, provisions, transportation, and for a part of a common fund to be raised by all the colonies. The Assembly met and at once provided for the opening of a post road between Philadelphia, and Winchester, Virginia, as well as for wagons and pack-horses. Franklin undertook the task of getting 150 wagons and 1,500 pack-horses. He advertised for these in York, Lancaster and Cumberland counties, and in two weeks had more than the quota. He gave his bonds for such horses as might be lost in the service. Claims to the amount of 20,000 pounds—enough to ruin him financially—were afterwards presented. The Assembly, after a long delay, paid his obligations. Three hundred men were then put to work cutting a road from Fort Loudon to unite with Braddock's road coming up from Maryland west of the mountains. Together with New Jersey, the province also furnished a body of troops.

It was June before Braddock's army left Fort Cumberland for Fort Duquesne, "over the worst roads in the world." He was accompanied by Washington, two chiefs, in command of some Indians, George Croghan, the Indian agent of Pennsylvania, and Captain Jack, the "wild hunter." Progress was slow, but without danger till the Monongahela had been crossed, some seven miles from Fort Duquesne, July 9. The army had just finished dinner and resumed the march, when it suddenly came face to face with the French, Canadians and Indians.

Braddock
Arrives

Braddock's
Defeat

The English troops were at once confused by the strange manner of battle employed by the enemy, who kept behind trees and logs, while nothing could be seen but puffs of smoke. When Braddock rode up and down among his men, urging them to fight, they replied that they would do so if he could show them the enemy. He got angry at Washington for suggesting to fight the Indians in Indian fashion, and when some of the soldiers did resort to it, he rudely ordered them away from their shelter. The battle lasted for three hours, and had not Washington covered the retreat with his provincials, the entire army would have been annihilated. Braddock was shot in the back just after he had ordered a retreat. He died on the summit of Laurel Hill the third day afterwards. His body was buried in the center of the road, that the retreating army in marching over it might efface all signs of the grave. In 1804 the remains were re-interred at the foot of a large white oak tree near by.

Braddock's defeat was followed by the greatest
The Indians
take Revenge consternation in Pennsylvania. The Indians now had the opportunity of avenging the Walking Purchase, the Albany Deed, and other acts of injustice, real and imaginary. They fell upon the frontier of Pennsylvania along its entire length—a distance of two hundred miles. First they disposed of the isolated settler beyond the mountains,—in the valleys of the Juniata and the Susquehanna. With no neighbors nearer than four or five miles, he was an easy victim. A plow in the furrow, a cabin in ashes, and a family scalped, mutilated and murdered, was the usual tale. Then the bloodthirsty Indians broke

through the gaps of the Blue Ridge. The French officers who were with them had no control over them. The main body was encamped on the Susquehanna, thirty miles above Harris' ferry. Thence they ravaged the counties of Cumberland, Lancaster, Berks and Northampton. Their atrocities were carried to within fifty miles of Philadelphia; the scalp yells were heard at Nazareth and Bethlehem, to which towns the Indians carried their prisoners and plunder.

Governor Morris called the Assembly in November; but he rejected their bill to raise money for the King's use because it taxed Difficulties in Raising Funds the Proprietary estates. The Assembly then raised 10,000 pounds by voluntary subscriptions, promising to reimburse the subscribers. Petitions for arms and ammunition now came in from every part of the province. The frontier counties passed resolutions at public meetings to repair to Philadelphia and demand measures and means of defense. A body of four hundred Germans marched to the city, crowded into the hall of the Assembly, and in personal interviews impressed their demands. The murdered and mangled bodies of a family butchered by the Indians were taken to Philadelphia, like frozen venison from the mountains, hauled about the streets, and actually placed in the doorway of the Assembly. About three hundred Indians who had remained faithful to the memory of Penn also joined in the appeals for help. The political quarrel could not be continued under such conditions. The Proprietors offered a donation of 5,000 pounds for the defence of the province, and the Assembly passed a bill to raise money without taxing the Proprietary estates.

A militia law, prepared by Franklin, was the next measure of defence. The Proprietary, by virtue of the charter, could raise a militia; but prior to 1755, no militia law had been passed. Now, however, the Assembly decided that, although it was against their own scruples to bear arms, they would allow those who thought it right, to do so.



Benjamin Franklin.

It was to be altogether a volunteer system. Franklin was made commander. He led about five hundred men to Bethlehem, in December; to give much-needed succor to the Moravian settlements. He remained in Northampton county till February, and ate, slept, and roughed it with the associators. The philosopher, scientist, journalist and statesman became so popular as a soldier that he was made a colonel, and was actually suggested to lead an expedition against Fort Duquesne.

While Franklin was in the field, he erected Fort Allen, opposite the mouth of Mahoning creek, and formed a line of communication through the wilderness to Wyoming, establishing a fort at mid-distance, called the Middle Fort. Governor Morris, about the same time, decided to build Fort Augusta at Shamokin. But there were so many points along the frontier that needed such protection that the Assembly took the matter in hand, and appropriated 85,000 pounds for a chain of forts from the Delaware to the Maryland line. At first there were less than twenty; but at the close of the war, no less than two hundred stockades and blockhouses had been erected, so as to form two distinct lines of

defence on the frontier. They commanded the principal passes in the mountains, and were garrisoned by the militia or by the rangers. The settlers frequently lived in the forts for months at a time, taking their household goods, farm implements, and live stock with them into the enclosure. When there was no immediate danger outside, the men worked in their fields during the day, and returned at night. They always took their rifles with them, and were often accompanied by sentinels. To incite the energies of the militia in the forts, and of the frontiersmen in general, Governor Morris offered a reward for Indian scalps and for the recovery of English prisoners. The Indians could be traced and located by their paths, of which there were four leading ones. But the reward for scalps did not accomplish much, except to arouse the indignation of the Assembly.

Morris also planned Colonel Armstrong's famous expedition against the Indian stronghold at Kittanning, although it was executed under his successor. The force, consisting of three hundred men, marched from Fort Shirley, now in Huntingdon county, August 30, 1756, and attacked Captain Jacobs, the most active chief of that time, at daybreak of the 8th of September. Many of the Indians were sleeping in a cornfield, on account of the heat. They were surprised and driven into the town. After two refusals to surrender, their huts were set on fire, and many of the savages died in the flames, singing and whooping as they perished. Captain Jacobs was shot while trying to escape from a window. The best part of the victory was the capture and destruction of great quantities of powder and other stores

Armstrong's
Expedition

which the French had supplied. Colonel Armstrong received a medal from the Council of Philadelphia in recognition of his services. If he had not destroyed Kittanning, Captain Jacobs would have marched for Fort Shirley the next day.

Governor Morris was succeeded, in 1756, by William Denny; but the Proprietary instructions were not changed. As it was no time for renewing an old quarrel, the Assembly waived its rights temporarily, and passed a money bill satisfactory to the Governor. They even passed a compulsory militia law, but Denny vetoed it. Arms and ammunition were needed more than men. Guns were out of repair, flints were scarce and poor, and the forts were without cannon. Under such conditions, Armstrong's victory lost its effect. Plowing and seeding and harvesting had again to be done in dread fear of the Indian's tomahawk and scalping knife. The border counties in 1757 were kept in constant alarm, and the savages carried terror even to within thirty miles of Philadelphia.

Fortunately, with the advent of William Pitt as prime minister of England, "the heavens began to brighten and the storm to lose its power." England now sent men and munitions of war in numbers and quantities sufficient to put an end to the struggle with France. Pitt pledged himself to pay liberally all soldiers who enlisted in America. Pennsylvania raised 2,700 men. Of the three expeditions planned, the one against Fort Duquesne was led by General John Forbes. His army consisted of the provincials of Pennsylvania and the southern colonies and of British regulars—

9,000 all told. It rendezvoused at Bedford, in September, 1758, and at the suggestion of Colonel Bouquet, a Swiss officer in the service of the British army, cut a new road from Raystown to Loyalhanna—a distance of forty-five miles. Loyalhanna was made the base of operations. A small force was sent forward to ascertain the strength of the enemy at Fort Duquesne. Venturing too far, the detachment was attacked, and fared no better than Braddock. Encouraged by their success, the French and Indians resolved to make a sudden assault on the camp at Loyalhanna, but were repulsed twice by Colonel Bouquet. Forbes having been detained at Carlisle by sickness, reached Loyalhanna about November 1st. The campaign would have been postponed till spring but for the capture of three French scouts, who dropped the secret that Fort Duquesne was weakly garrisoned. Forbes quickly altered his plans, and sent Washington forward with the Virginians. But the enemy had fled. Flaming timbers and exploding powder were all that was left at Fort Duquesne to tell the tale of French occupation in the Ohio valley. Forbes was a hero; the French and Indian war was over in Pennsylvania; and the question whether the Celtic or the Teutonic civilization should prevail in North America was more than half solved. Forbes' success was due in no small degree to Frederick Post, a Moravian missionary. At the instance of the Friendly Association of Quakers, this heroic man twice, once in July and again in October, went among the savages of the West on a mission of peace. Under the very shadow of Fort Duquesne, in the presence of the French,

and in the face of threatened death, he made a treaty with the Delawares [and the Shawanese, whereby these became the friends of the English before General Forbes had marched out of Loyalhanna.

The Assembly, in 1757, had resumed the question of taxing the estates of the Proprietary. They had sent Franklin to England to appeal to the King and Parliament. Finding the King too busy with the war to give him an audience, Franklin appealed to the people by publishing a book, entitled "Historical Review of Pennsylvania." Coming from the man who had discovered the identity of electricity and lightning, the book was read by lords and commons. The English people could see no reason why Penn's estates should not be taxed, while they themselves paid heavy taxes for the war in America. So when finally, in 1759, the question came before the Privy Council, Franklin won the day. His fame as a diplomat spread all over America, and several other colonies made him their representative in London, to adjust their difficulties.

Governor Denny was removed by the Proprietors in 1759, and James Hamilton appointed in his place. The Assembly was now in a position to aid in the prosecution of the war in Canada without endangering its rights, and it did so most generously. After the treaty of 1763 there was every prospect of a long era of peace. There was no foreign foe beyond the mountains to invade the colonies, or to incite the Indians against the frontier. The settlers returned to their abandoned homes to begin life anew; and the English government fortified the region conquered from the French. But the

extension of these defenses and the rapid advance of the settlers caused a fresh uprising among the savages. Pontiac, a veritable Napoleon of the wilderness, organized all the tribes from Lake Ontario to Georgia in a grand conspiracy to repel the English. In western Pennsylvania he was ably seconded by Kiashuta, the viceroy of the Six Nations. The attack was to be made on all the forts and settlements on the same day; but the plan miscarried, and Fort Pitt was surrounded about June 1, 1763, a few days before the warwhoop was heard in New York, Maryland and Virginia. A bundle of sticks had been given to every tribe in the confederacy, each bundle containing as many sticks as there were days till the time for the attack. One stick was to be drawn out every morning; the day on which the last one was removed was to be the time for the attack. A Delaware squaw on the Ohio, who was in sympathy with the whites, had purposely drawn out two or three sticks, unnoticed by the warriors, and so brought about the untimely action.

The whole frontier of Pennsylvania west of the Susquehanna, was devastated so completely that Indian history in America presents no parallel. The tomahawk first and the torch next, was the order which Pontiac had given all along the line. Corpses and ashes marked the path of destruction. Although the harvest was ripe, the farmers abandoned their grain fields and fled through the mountain passes to the settlements beyond. On the 25th of July Shippensburg harbored over three hundred fugitives; Carlisle, too, was full to overflowing, and so were other places. Colonel

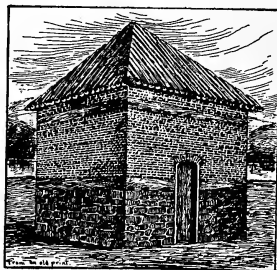
**The Frontier
Devastated**

Armstrong, with some three hundred volunteers from Carlisle, Shippensburg and Bedford, started from Fort Shirley, on the Aughwick, to destroy the Indian settlement at Muncy, but the enemy had fled when he arrived there.

But these and other feeble efforts at resistance were far from effective. Unless Fort Pitt, Bouquet's Expedition from which the Indians had cut off all communication, could be relieved, there would be no safety east of it. General Amherst, commander of the British army in America, dispatched Colonel Bouquet to western Pennsylvania. His command was composed of rangers from Lancaster and Cumberland counties, and about five hundred regulars, who were wornout veterans, unfit for hard service, some having to be conveyed in wagons. Starting from Carlisle July 21, he marched by way of Fort Bedford and Fort Ligonier. On August 5, when within a short distance of Bushy run, near Braddock's field, the Indians made a savage attack on his advance guard; and when the main army came up a fierce battle ensued, lasting the greater part of two days. Nothing but a strategy saved Colonel Bouquet's troops from being annihilated. In the night he arranged them in a circle. He then ordered a feigned retreat to be made at the point of the enemy's deadliest fire. The Indians rushed into the circle in pursuit of the retreating lines, but before they were aware of it received such a fire from all directions that they fled beyond the Ohio in the utmost confusion. Bouquet now led his tired army to Fort Pitt, and began to erect a redoubt—a square stone building, which is still standing—in place of the old fort. It is the last

monument of British dominion in Pittsburg. On it is the inscription, "Colonel Bouquet, A. D. 1764." The Indians withdrew beyond the Ohio.

For some months after the battle of Bushy Run, the frontier of Pennsylvania was comparatively quiet. The raid made upon the Conestoga Indians (see p. 55) especially had a wholesome effect upon the savages. But with the first appearance of spring, in 1764, hostilities were renewed. The British government now resolved to carry the war into the



Bouquet's Redoubt.

Indian country. Two expeditions were planned—one against the Indians along the Great Lakes, and the other against those on the Ohio. The latter was entrusted to Colonel Bouquet. The Assembly voted to raise 1,000 men, 50,000 pounds, and 50 pairs of bloodhounds. The use of the dogs was not put into effect. Bouquet marched bravely into the wilderness of Ohio, completely overawed the Indians, and made them sue for peace. They had to give up all the white prisoners—more than two hundred in number—many of whom had been in captivity since 1755. Some of the soldiers had relatives and friends among the captives, and the reunion of such was a most affecting scene. Many of the children had become so attached to Indian life that they had to be taken back to their homes by force. A few, who had married Indians, never returned. Those who could not be identified at Fort Pitt were brought to

Carlisle, in the hope that people east of the mountains might claim them. It was here that the old German widow, Mrs. Hartman, caused her long-lost daughter to recognize her by singing a cradle song.

Although Franklin had secured the decision in England that the estates of the Penns
To Abolish the Proprietorship were to be taxed, yet how and upon what basis, was an open question. Governor John Penn, grandson of William, and successor to Hamilton, would not sign the grant for Bouquet's expedition unless the best wild lands of the family estates were taxed at the same low rate paid by the people for the poorest; and the Assembly, anxious for peace, yielded. Immediately, strong opposition arose against the Proprietors, and measures were taken to abolish the Proprietorship and make Pennsylvania a royal province. The Assembly passed resolutions rehearsing the tyranny of the Proprietary, and a bitter factional struggle ensued among the people. The anti-Proprietary party circulated petitions praying the King to take the province under his benign protection. In October, 1764, the Assembly passed the petition for a change of government by a vote of 27 to 3. Rather than sign the document, Issac Norris, at the last moment, resigned the position of Speaker. In the final debate, John Dickinson and Joseph Galloway made the leading speeches for and against, respectively. Both desired the success of the democratic principle that was asserting itself in the province; but Galloway favored the abolition of the Proprietary government as the best way to accomplish the end, while Dickinson believed its continuance would serve the end better.

Franklin was appointed to carry the petition to England and lay it before the Crown. The Proprietors do not seem to have feared the result. Thomas Penn wrote from England to a friend in Pennsylvania: "We are not in fear of your mighty Goliath, whose schemes of government are not approved of here, and who may lose the government of a post-office by grasping at that of a province." In November, 1765, Franklin laid the petition of the Assembly before the Privy Council; but no action was taken, except that the Penns were required to furnish the Crown a statement of the financial management of the province. However, the agitation had its wholesome effects. The Proprietors ordered Governor Penn to do everything in his power to conciliate the factions in Pennsylvania. His task was made easy, for in their wrath against the Stamp Act the people lost sight of their grievances with the Proprietors. Nevertheless, the effort to throw off the Proprietary Government was a preparatory drill for the Revolution ten years later.

THE REVOLUTIONARY PERIOD

In 1764, Parliament announced a new doctrine of taxation to the colonies. It was to the effect that in future, revenue for the King's The Stamp Act use would be raised in America by Parliamentary acts. Before that time, internal taxes had always been imposed by the colonial legislatures. A bill passed on this doctrine of "taxation without representation" was brought in and passed in March, 1765. It was the famous Stamp Act. Dr. Franklin, who was in Eng-

land at the time, did all he could to prevent its passage; but, said he, "England was provoked by American claims of independence, and all parties joined in resolving by this act to settle that point." No sooner had the news reached America than the Stamp Act Congress was called to meet at New York. John Dickinson, of Philadelphia, drafted the resolutions, since known as the first American Bill of Rights. John Hughes, a member of the Assembly, was made stamp distributor for Pennsylvania; but when the bells were muffled, the colors hoisted half-mast, and acts of violence threatened, he resigned. A Philadelphia newspaper appeared the day before the act went into effect, with skull and cross-bones, spade and shovel. The editor stopped and asked for subscriptions due, that he might live. The storekeepers resolved to buy no more British goods. To increase the product of domestic wool, lambs were no longer killed. Great frugality was practiced, even the "pomp of woe" at funerals was restrained. Such were the results accomplished in Pennsylvania by the Sons of Liberty, in opposition to the Stamp Act, and when news of its repeal reached Philadelphia, they were in high glee over the victory. They dined and wined the captain of the brig bringing the news, and presented a gold-laced hat to him. Their kindly feeling for the mother country returned unabated; for on the King's birthday, they dressed themselves in English goods and gave their homespun to the poor. Dr. Franklin, who was largely instrumental in the repeal of the Stamp Act, had to caution his friends in America not to be too demonstrative, lest England take offense.

William Pitt, who "rejoiced that America had resisted" the Stamp Act, drew a line between internal and external taxation, holding that Parliament could tax the colonies by the latter method, on the ground that it could regulate trade and raise a revenue. Accordingly, in 1767, an act was passed providing for colonial revenue, to be raised from a duty on wine, oil, glass, paper, lead, colors and tea, the proceeds to be used to pay the governors' and the judges' salaries in the royal provinces. Again non-importation agreements were proposed and accepted by the Philadelphia merchants, while the province sent protests to the King and to Parliament.

External
Taxation



John Dickinson.

John Dickinson, in the "Letters of a Pennsylvania Farmer," stirred the colonists from New Hampshire to Georgia with his simple, irresistible logic. The farmers especially—and they were by far the most numerous class of people then—were thoroughly aroused from their political sleep by Dickinson. He pointed out "that any law, so far as it creates expense, is in reality a tax;" that if England could tax the colonies for the support of the governors and judges, the salaries of these officers would no longer depend on their standing with the Assemblies, but would be fixed by the King to serve his own ends; that the Governors might not call the Assemblies together at all, except "to make laws for the yoking of hogs or the pounding of stray cattle." Dickinson's letters were widely read, both here and abroad. At a public meeting in Boston, Hancock, Adams, War-

ren, and others were appointed a committee to write him a letter, saluting "the Farmer as the friend of Americans and the common benefactor of mankind."

Excepting a brief change in the governorship, political affairs were quiet in Pennsylvania till 1773. John Penn having returned to England in 1771, the president of the Council, James Hamilton, acted as Governor until Richard Penn, a younger brother of John, arrived a few months later. Richard was a great favorite in Pennsylvania, but he served only till his brother John returned, in 1773. John Penn now held the governorship until the end of Proprietary government, in 1776.

The duties imposed by the act of 1767 were removed in 1770 from everything but tea, which was taxed three pence per pound; but the non-importation agreements were faithfully kept. Hence England was obliged to make arrangements at home so that the accumulated tea of the East India Company could be sold in America for what the colonists could buy it before the tax was on it. This act gave rise to the so-called "tea parties." The East India Company sent several vessels loaded with tea to the colonies, but it was not allowed to be landed. At Philadelphia, the ships "with the detested tea" got as far as Gloucester Point, where a committee from a mass meeting of 8,000 people, assembled in the State House yard, met them and warned them not to come nearer. The captain was allowed to come to town and decide for himself whether he thought it prudent to land. He came, but decided not to land. The committee also induced the consignees to resign their commissions for selling

the tea. The following is a facsimile of the notice sent to the consignees :

A C A R D.

THE PUBLIC present their Compliments to Messieurs **JAMES AND DRINKER**.... We are informed that you have this Day received your Commission to enslave your native Country; and, as your frivolous Plea of having received no Advice, relative to the scandalous Part you were to act, in the **TEA-SCHEME**, can no longer serve your Purpose, nor divert our Attention, we expect and desire you will immediately inform the **PUBLIC**, by a Line or two to be left at the **COFFEE HOUSE**, Whether you will, or will not, renounce all Pretensions to execute that Commission?-----**THAT WE MAY GOVERN OURSELVES ACCORDINGLY.**

Philadelphia, December 2, 1773.

When the Boston Port Bill (see any United States history) was passed by Parliament, in Pennsylvania 1774, and other repressive acts designed Conservative to bring Massachusetts to submission, that colony felt that it could no longer resist Great Britain without the help of the others. This was not difficult to get in some colonies; for they had likewise been made to feel the rod of the mother country. Virginia promptly passed a resolution in her Legislature setting apart the day on which the Boston Port Bill was to go into effect as one of "fasting, humiliation and prayer." Virginia, like Massachusetts, had been deprived of her liberties by numerous acts of oppression and restraint, and was ripe for a united effort to regain what she had lost.

Pennsylvania, having had a Proprietary form of government, based on a most liberal charter, could not so readily trace her ills to the Crown. Moreover, the province always enjoyed a growth and a prosperity so great and uniform that the ills of government bore less heavily on her than on other colonies. It was natural, therefore, to find a strong conservative element in Pennsylvania when the first steps were taken to resist Great Britain.

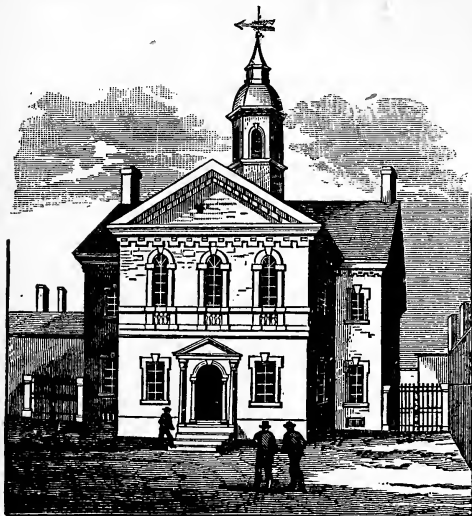
Since Pennsylvania, being next to Virginia and
Paul Revere's equal to Massachusetts in population,
Visit would influence the middle colonies by
her action, as the other two did their neighbors, it was important that she should respond promptly and vigorously to the cry from Boston. So in May, 1774, Paul Revere came to Philadelphia to explain the situation. He was received by Joseph Reed, Thomas Mifflin and Charles Thomson, who introduced him to other leading men. A public meeting was held in the City Tavern the very next day. Speeches were made by Reed, Mifflin, Thomson and Dickinson. Dr. William Smith, provost of the Philadelphia College, drew up a letter to be carried to Boston by Revere. The letter, and a set of resolutions accompanying it, defended the right of the colonies to give and grant their own money through their own Assemblies; the Boston Port Bill was denounced, and deep sympathy expressed for Massachusetts; and a colonial congress was recommended. Copies were sent to the other colonies, that a united effort might be made throughout America to let Great Britain know that a principle is far too dear to be abandoned by the payment of a petty tax on tea.

Another and a larger meeting was held June 28, in the State House. Stirring resolutions were again passed, similar to the others; the Governor was asked to call the Assembly together; a congress of all the colonies was recommended; and a committee was appointed to correspond with similar committees then organizing in the other counties of the province. Governor Penn having declined to call the Assembly, these committees were to be the nucleus of a new organization in the movement against the oppressive acts of England. Meetings were held throughout the province "to take the sentiments of the inhabitants." Those who favored the liberty party were called "Whigs," and those whose sympathies were with Great Britain were called "Tories." At the suggestion of the committee of Philadelphia, deputies were chosen from every county to meet in the city July 15. At this provincial congress, an account of what had already been done in Pennsylvania and other colonies was given; sixteen resolutions were drawn up to express the sense of the convention on the difficulties with Great Britain; and a set of instructions was addressed to the Assembly. The "instructions" were the work very largely of John Dickinson.

"Honor, justice and humanity call upon us to hold, and to transmit to our posterity, that liberty which we received from our ancestors. It is not our duty to leave wealth to our children; but it is our duty to leave liberty to them. * * * So alarming are the measures already taken for laying the foundations of a despotic authority over us * * * that unless we can interrupt the work, our children will not be able to overthrow it when completed."

"For attaining this great and desirable end," the
The First Continental Congress Assembly was asked to appoint delegates
"to attend a Congress of Deputies from the
several colonies." The men appointed were
Joseph Galloway, Samuel Rhoads, Thomas Mifflin and
John Dickinson, of Philadelphia; John Morton, of
Chester; Charles Humphreys, of Haverford; George
Ross, of Lancaster, and Edward Biddle, of Reading.
These were Pennsylvania's delegates to what has since
been known as the First Continental Congress, whose
sessions were held in Carpenters' Hall, Philadelphia,
September 5 to October 26. Dickinson was the lead-
ing man among them. Of the six papers drawn up
by the Congress, he was the author of two—the
famous petition to the King, and the address to the
people of Canada. Galloway played a conspicuous
but not very honorable part. According to Bancroft,
he "acted as a volunteer spy for the British govern-
ment." "To the delegates from other colonies," says
the historian, "he insinuated as they arrived that
'commissioner- with full power should repair to the
British cour', after the example of the Roman, Gre-
cian, and Macedonian colonies on occasions of the like
nature.' His colleagues spurned the thought of send-
ing envoys to dangle at the heels of a minister and
undergo the scorn of Parliament." On the third day,
the Congress was opened with prayer, after Samuel
Adams had silenced the objections of Jay and
Rutledge by declaring: "I am no bigot; I can hear
a prayer from a man of piety and virtue, who is at
the same time a friend to his country." The man
named for this sacred duty was Rev. Jacob Duché,
rector of Christ church, and first chaplain of the

Second Continental Congress. News had just been received of a bloody attack on the people by the troops at Boston; and as the collect for the day was read, the members of the Congress believed that a



Carpenters' Hall.

rude soldiery was then infesting the dwellings and taking the lives of the people of Boston. Heaven itself seemed to dictate the words of Scripture, the 35th Psalm, that memorable morning :

Plead my cause, O Lord, with them that strive with me :
fight against them that fight against me. Take hold of shield
and buckler, and stand up for mine help. * * * *

Carpenters' Hall was built in 1770 by the Carpenters' Company, an organization formed for giving instruction in architecture and assisting poor members' widows and children. After

Carpenters' Hall

the First Congress the building was occupied by various bodies representing the province. The British occupied it in 1777, the soldiers using the vane on the cupola for target practice. The First and Second National Banks both transacted their business within its walls for several years. Later on it served in all sorts of capacities—as custom house, land office, music hall, meeting house, school house, horse market, furniture store. In 1857, the Carpenters again took possession of their ancient hall, and have since kept it open as a historic relic. Half a million people visited the time-honored building during the Centennial Exhibition, in 1876.

The report of the proceedings of the First Continental Congress was unanimously adopted by the Pennsylvania Assembly, early in December; and the province thus became a member of the American Association designed to secure the enforcement of non-importation and non-consumption of British goods. Biddle, Dickinson, Mifflin, Galloway, Humphreys, Morton and Ross were elected delegates to the Second Continental Congress, to meet May 10, 1775. Franklin, on arriving from his ten years' sojourn in England, in the spring of 1775, was at once added to the delegation. Galloway had requested to be relieved from serving on account of the radical acts against England. Governor Penn had hitherto refrained from directing or controlling the Assembly in matters pertaining to the contest. But when Great Britain proposed not to tax the colonists, provided they would tax themselves to the satisfaction of Parliament, the Governor, in a message to the Assembly, May, 1775, sided with Great Britain.

The Assembly
Ratifies the Acts
of Congress

A second provincial congress was held in Philadelphia, January, 1775. Nearly all the counties were represented. Resolutions were adopted to provide means for the growth and manufacture of things that used to be imported from England. At first it was determined to exhaust all peaceable measures for the restoration of American rights before resorting to arms. It was not until "the shot which was heard around the world" had been fired at Lexington, that a different spirit began to make itself strongly felt. Thousands of people now agreed "to associate for the purpose of defending with arms their lives, their property, and their liberty."

An Echo from
Lexington

Pennsylvania's instructions to her delegates in the Second Congress, to whom, besides Franklin, Thomas Willing, of Philadelphia, and James Wilson, of Cumberland, were added, had been to combine, if possible, a redress of grievances with "union and harmony between Great Britain and the colonies." In this position Pennsylvania was not alone; for the Americans generally had not yet given up the hope of reconciliation. Independence seemed probable, but not inevitable. Franklin, however, supported the boldest measures. "Make yourselves sheep," he would say, "and the wolves will devour you." Dickinson favored a second petition to the King, and drafted it; but the King "determined to listen to nothing from the illegal Congress."

Redress of
Grievances
Sought

On the 14th of June, 1775, Congress resolved to raise a Continental army. Its first levy was for "six companies of expert riflemen to be raised in Pennsylvania, two in Maryland,

A Continental
Army Formed

and two in Virginia." A few days later two more companies were ordered from Pennsylvania. The Assembly at once recommended to the counties to provide arms and equipments for this force. It also appointed a Committee of Safety June 30, consisting of ten persons from the city of Philadelphia, four from the county, two from Chester, and one from each of the other nine counties. This body organized, with Franklin as president. Its first act was to draft rules and regulations for the associators, or militia, which included all able-bodied men between the ages of 16 and 50. Many persons declined to perform military duty on the ground of conscientious scruples. All such were to contribute an equivalent in money for military service. The eight companies of volunteer riflemen, called by Congress, were raised without any difficulty. Lancaster county furnished two instead of one, and so there were nine when the quota had been completed. They were formed into a battalion, commanded by Colonel William Thompson, of Carlisle. The companies marched for Boston as soon as they were organized. On the 18th of July, Nagel's Berks County "Dutchmen"—the first company to be ready—arrived at Cambridge, and within less than sixty days from the date of the call of Congress, the riflemen of Pennsylvania, Maryland and Virginia were all with Washington, the first troops called into the Continental army.

The Committee of Safety next went to work on the defenses of Philadelphia against an invasion from the sea. It put the famous chevaux-de-frize in the Delaware, and began the construction of the State Navy. In August, 1776,

the fleet numbered twenty-seven vessels, with Captain Thomas Reed as commodore, the first officer of that title in America. One of the first commissions issued was that to the famous Nicholas Biddle, as captain of the Franklin. Three months after the State Navy was begun, Congress took action for the construction of a Continental Navy, which was also fitted out at Philadelphia.

The opening gun of the year 1776, the most memorable of all the years of the Revolution, was Thomas Paine's pamphlet, "Common Sense" "Common Sense," brought out January 8. The son of a Quaker in England, he was induced by Franklin to come to Philadelphia, where he associated with Rittenhouse, Clymer, Rush, and other patriots of Pennsylvania.

"Everything that is right and natural pleads for separation. Even the distance at which the Almighty hath placed England and America is a strong and natural proof that the authority of the one over the other was never the design of Heaven. It is not in the power of Britain, or of Europe, to conquer America, if she does not conquer herself by delay and timidity."

"Common Sense" was written to overthrow the Proprietary party in Pennsylvania, but it did more. The King had just issued his proclamation denouncing the colonists as rebels. Paine's pamphlet, therefore, came at a most opportune time to create sentiment in favor of a separation.

In April, the Assembly renewed its instructions to the Pennsylvania delegates in Congress not to give their consent to a separation or a change of the Proprietary government. But

The Assembly
Tested

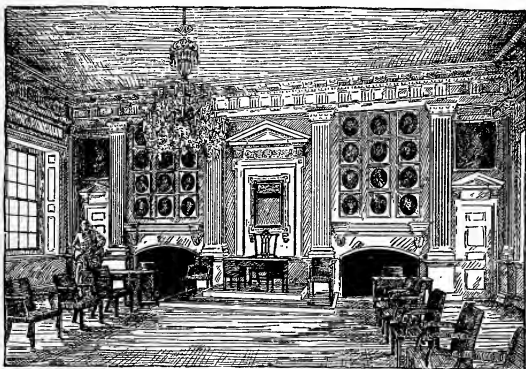
Congress, May 15, recommended State governments in the colonies, and declared that all authority under the Crown should be totally suppressed. On the 8th of June, the day after Richard Henry Lee, in Congress, had proposed the independence of the colonies, the Assembly gave instructions which neither advised nor forbade a declaration of independence, but left the question to the "ability, prudence and integrity" of the delegates. This doubtful action proved the end of the Proprietary Assembly; once only did it again have a quorum of its members. Instead of allowing the State government, ordered by Congress, May 15, to be formed by members of an Assembly sworn to support the King, the people called a provincial convention for that purpose. The Assembly instituted by Penn did not come to an end till the obstinacy of the King left no room for reconciliation.

When, on the 1st of July, the vote on Lee's resolution for independence was to be taken
 Lee's Resolution Adopted in committee of the whole, the Pennsylvania delegation in Congress—Franklin, Dickinson, Morris, Wilson, Morton, Humphreys and Willing—were divided, and cast their vote against it. Dickinson made a great speech, the burden of which was that the time was not yet ripe for such an important step. Wilson, who had held the same view before, could now no longer agree with Dickinson. Two other States—Delaware and South Carolina—voted nay; while New York, whose delegates did not receive favorable instructions till after the adoption of the declaration, did not vote at all. The next day, when the committee of the whole reported to Congress, Delaware voted aye; so did South Carolina.

Delaware's vote was changed by Cæsar Rodney, who rode eighty miles on horseback to vote for independence. Dickinson and Morris remaining away, Pennsylvania, by the vote of Franklin, Wilson, and Morton, against Humphreys and Willing, was also enabled to say aye on "the greatest question ever debated in America or ever decided among men."

The second day of July, 1776, was not destined to become "the most memorable epoch in the history of America." It was the fourth day of July when Jefferson's Declaration of Independence, in which he set forth the reasons for the act of the second of July, was passed. On the

Jefferson's
Declaration of
Independence



Interior of Independence Hall. Room in which the Declaration of Independence was signed.

8th, the Declaration of Independence was read in the State House yard. At the same time the King's arms were taken from the court room and publicly burned, while merry chimes from the church steeples and peals from the State House bell "proclaimed liberty

throughout the land." The Declaration having to be engrossed, was not signed until August 2. As Dickinson, Humphreys and Willing had in the meantime been succeeded in Congress by other men, their names do not appear among the signers of Pennsylvania, who were Benjamin Franklin, Robert Morris, Dr. Benjamin Rush, and George Clymer, of Philadelphia; George Ross, of Lancaster; James Smith, of York; James Wilson, of Cumberland; George Taylor, of Northampton, and John Morton, of Chester county. Before Dickinson left Congress, he drafted the Articles of Confederation, and once more distinguished himself by the use of his pen in behalf of his country. Franklin had prepared a plan of union the previous year, but it had been laid aside for the time being.

Scarcely had the peals of the Liberty Bell died out, when the drums of Washington's army sounded the retreat across New Jersey, in the fall of 1776 (see any U. S. history). Pennsylvania was in consternation. Liberal bounties were offered to volunteers; blankets and stockings were begged for the soldiers; the associators of Philadelphia and the counties around it were urged to join the army, and armed boats were sent to Trenton to transport Washington's troops across the Delaware. In the midst of this excitement, Congress fled precipitately to Baltimore. But Pennsylvania's Committee of Safety coöperated with Washington, calling on every patriot "to step forth at this crisis" and reinforce the depleted and disheartened army of less than three thousand men. The militia of Bucks, Northampton and adjoining counties answered the call promptly.

After crossing the Delaware on his retreat, Washington made his headquarters at Newtown, Bucks county, while his army was stationed eight miles above Trenton, at McConkey's ferry, near Taylorsville. The Pennsylvania militia were stationed at Bristol, under Cadwalader, and at Morrisville, opposite Trenton, under Ewing. Some troops were also stationed at Yardleyville and other points up the river. Washington's plan on the night of the 25th of December contemplated a combined attack on Trenton by himself, Ewing, and Cadwalader. Ewing, owing to the ice in the river, made no attempt to cross it. Cadwalader, with honest zeal, tried it; some of the men got over, but the horses and artillery could not reach the land on account of the ice. After suffering in a driving snow storm for some hours, Cadwalader and his men returned to camp and crept into their tents, without fire or light. The story of Washington's crossing the Delaware is familiar to every school-boy. Before night on the 26th he had landed in Pennsylvania with his thousand Hessian prisoners and started them on their way to Philadelphia, whence they were sent to Lancaster and confined in barracks erected for the purpose.

The Supreme Executive Council, chosen under the new Constitution, in February, 1777, met March 4, and took the reins of government. Thomas Wharton, Jr., was elected President, and as such was chief executive of the State. The Council of Safety was now dissolved, Franklin, its president, having already gone to France as one of the three commissioners sent by Congress to solicit

Washington
Crossing
the Delaware

The Year 1777

aid. The year 1777 was to be a memorable one for Pennsylvania. Many such patriotic and heroic deeds as that of Robert Morris, in Philadelphia, on New Year's morning, and John Kelley, at Stony creek, on



Thomas Wharton, Jr.

January 3 (see p. 317), were done before it closed. Morris went from house to house, in Philadelphia, rousing the people out of bed, to borrow money of them. Early in the day he sent Washington \$50,000, with the message: "Whatever I can do shall be done for the good of the service; if further occasional supplies of money are necessary, you may depend on my exertions, either in a public or a private capacity." During the summer the Whigs arrested some forty Tories. About half of them signed their parole, promising not to say or do anything against the United States, and then were discharged. John Penn, the late Governor, refused, and he was confined at Fredericksburg, Virginia.

The expected attack on Philadelphia was set on foot by Howe at New York, July 5, where he embarked his troops. On arriving at the capes of Delaware, he learned of the *chevaux-de-frize* in the Delaware, and resolved to enter Pennsylvania by way of the Chesapeake, anchoring his fleet in Elk river, 54 miles from Philadelphia. Congress, which had returned from Baltimore, made a requisition on the Executive Council for 4,000 militia, and ordered Washington to leave New Jersey and march against Howe. The commander-in-chief reached Philadelphia August 24, and

Howe sails
for
Philadelphia

led his troops, decorated with sprays of green and carrying the American flag for the first time, through the streets of Philadelphia, to encourage the patriots. Here the young Marquis de Lafayette joined the army, to be wounded in his first battle. Washington hastened on to meet the enemy, whose two divisions had formed a juncture at Kennett Square, September 10. By a secret movement, he took position on the high grounds above Chadd's Ford, on the north side of the Brandywine, directly in Howe's path.



The Betsy Ross Flag.

Early on the morning of the 11th, the British, with a small part of their army under Knyphausen, made Washington believe that they intended to cross the Brandywine at Chadd's Ford. But he received information that their main body,

Brandywine



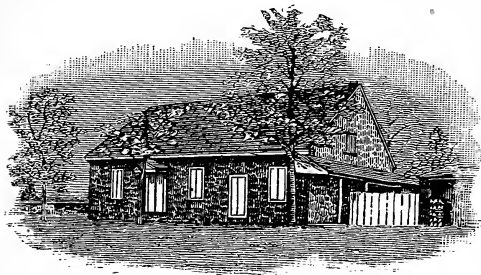
The Present Flag.

under Howe and Cornwallis, would cross the river at a ford higher up. So he sent word to General Sullivan, second in command, to meet Howe and Cornwallis and hold them in check, while he himself would defeat Knyphausen first and then turn his attention to the main body of the enemy. Just as Washington was about to

attack Knyphausen, a message came from Sullivan that the British were not coming from the north, and that therefore he had disobeyed his orders.

But Washington had been correctly informed. Howe had crossed the Brandywine above the forks at Trimble's and Jefferi's fords, and soon fell upon Sullivan above Birmingham meeting house. Washington, leaving

General Wayne to oppose Knyphausen at Chadd's Ford, hastened to the assistance of Sullivan; but this General had already given way to the unexpected attack of



Birmingham Meeting House.

the British, and was on the retreat. When Washington came up, his own troops at first fell in with the fleeing soldiers of Sullivan; but Greene's corps, which included a division of Pennsylvanians fighting on their native soil, was finally planted in a position where it could hold its ground against the British till nightfall. General Wayne made a gallant stand against Knyphausen; but the defeat of the American right compelled him at last to retreat and abandon his cannon to the Hessian commander. General Greene was the last to quit the field, but not before darkness had made further resistance impossible. Washington's army retreated to Chester that night, and the next day to Germantown.

Howe's success on the Brandywine caused great consternation in Philadelphia and its vicinity. Church bells were sunk in the river or carried away. The Liberty Bell was hidden

under the floor of Zion's Reformed church, in Allentown; the State archives were carried to Easton, while the State government removed to Lancaster. The members of Congress rose from their beds and fled in the night to Lancaster, and thence to York. The wounded in battle were sent to Ephrata and other places. Lafayette was cared for by the Moravians at Bethlehem. Many of the farmers, with their families and their horses and cattle, sought safety in the outlying counties; and to prevent the British from entering Philadelphia before another blow could be struck, the floating bridges on the Schuylkill were removed.

As soon as Washington had supplied his army at Germantown with provisions and ammunition, he recrossed the Schuylkill, followed the Lancaster turnpike and met the British at Warren Tavern, a little west of Paoli; but a heavy rain drenched the cartridges, and he had to retire.

He left General Wayne, with 1,500 men, near Paoli, to fall upon and to destroy Howe's baggage. The British learned of Wayne's position, and made a sudden attack on the camp in the dead of night. With the cry of "no quarters," they bayoneted the Americans in a manner that beggared description.

Some of the victims passed from the sleep of night into the sleep of eternity without waking. The loss was heavy to bear, and opened the way to Philadelphia for the British.

The Massacre
of Paoli



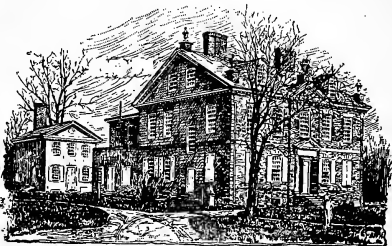
Anthony Wayne.

The massacre of Paoli occurred on the night of the 20th. By several skilful manœuvres, **Howe Takes Philadelphia** Howe, on the night of the 23d, crossed the Schuylkill below Valley Forge, and took possession of Philadelphia on the 26th. The American army, too weak to offer any resistance, encamped at Skippack creek, north of Germantown. The fact that Washington did not prevent Howe from crossing the Schuylkill was the chief ground on which, the following winter, his enemies sought to have him removed. Even John Adams cried out in despair after the massacre at Paoli: "O, Heaven grant us one great soul! One leading mind would extricate the best cause from that ruin which seems to await it!"

Howe constructed a line of redoubts from the **Howe in Philadelphia** Delaware to the Schuylkill, along the present lines of Poplar, Green and Callowhill streets. He also posted a strong force at Germantown, extending from the mouth of the Wissahickon to the Old York road. Washington broke camp on the evening of October 3, and arrived at Germantown at 3 o'clock on the morning of the 4th. General Armstrong, with the Pennsylvania militia, moved along the banks of the Schuylkill, to fall upon the Hessians at the mouth of the Wissahickon. Wayne and Sullivan went down the main street of Germantown to attack the British at Market Square. Greene followed a circuitous route by way of the lime kiln road, to attack the right wing of the enemy and drive them in upon the center at the same time that Wayne and Sullivan would attack them in front.

The battle was to begin on all quarters precisely at 5 o'clock. Armstrong could not drive the Hessians from their position and get in the rear of the British center, as was intended. Wayne and Sullivan, however, forced Howe's center at Market Square into confusion, so that the British commander had to cry, "For shame, light infantry! I never saw you retreat before. Form! form! it is only a scouting party." Colonel Musgrove quickly took possession of the large and strong stone mansion of Chief Justice Chew, and used it as

Germantown



The Chew Mansion.

a fort to check the advance of Wayne, whose memories of Paoli found expression in the cry, "Have it at the bloodhounds! Revenge! Revenge!" Not willing "to leave an enemy in a fort [in the rear," the Americans tried in vain to set the mansion on fire and batter it down with cannon balls. This diversion gave the English time to form for battle and get reinforcements from Philadelphia. When Greene arrived, almost an hour late, he was outflanked, and, after fifteen minutes of heavy firing, was driven back. Though Washington had placed a regiment around Chew's mansion, with orders not to cannonade it again, one of Greene's divisions opened fire on it once more. This occurring in the rear of Wayne's division, he mistook it for the enemy's fire, and retreated in great haste. An early morning fog

added greatly to the confusion. At about half-past eight, Washington, seeing that the day was lost, ordered a retreat, which was made in perfect order, to Perkiomen creek.

The forts and vessels commanding the Delaware were next attacked by General Howe, in order to get the fleet under his brother, Admiral Howe, to Philadelphia. There were three forts — Mifflin, Mercer, and Billingsport. Between these forts were stretched the chevaux-de-frize, and above lay the American fleet. Billingsport had been abandoned to the enemy before the battle of Germantown, and on the 22d of October a body of Hessians, aided by the British fleet, made an assault on Fort Mercer. They were repulsed, with the loss of 400 men, who lay in heaps around the fort. Howe's men-of-war were equally unsuccessful, having been driven down the river by Commodore Hazlewood's Pennsylvania State fleet. The attack on Fort Mifflin was heroically resisted for six long days and nights, until palisades, parapets and blockhouses had been leveled to the ground and 250 of its 300 defenders had been killed and wounded. The fort was then burned and the garrison removed to Red Bank. With the fall of Fort Mifflin, Fort Mercer had to be abandoned also. The State fleet succeeded in stealing past the city at night into the upper waters of the Delaware, but the Continental fleet was less fortunate, and had to be set on fire and burned.

Howe's fleet now came up the Delaware and took a position in front of Philadelphia. On January 5, 1778, the men of the Pennsylvania fleet executed a scheme to destroy it. A

"The Battle
of the Kegs"

number of machines resembling kegs were prepared at Burlington and placed in the river, to be carried down by the current. The kegs had spring locks so contrived as to explode on coming in contact with a vessel. Unfortunately the British fleet kept close to the wharves at the time to avoid the ice. As the kegs moved past the city, broadside after broadside was hurled at them. Every chip, stick, or drift-log felt the vigor of the British guns. The affair was most ludicrous. Francis Hopkinson ridiculed it in a ballad entitled "The Battle of the Kegs."

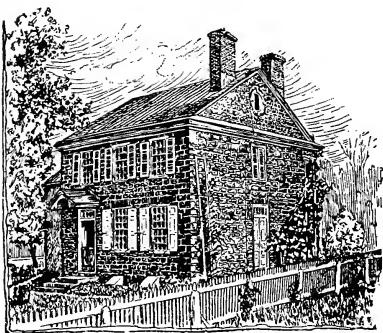
Washington, though reinforced by troops from Gates' army, chose the defensive in his strong camp at White Marsh. Here he was attacked by Howe, December 4. After a skirmish with the Pennsylvania militia and a sharp action at Edge Hill, the British retired to Philadelphia without "driving General Washington over the Blue mountain," as Howe had threatened to do. And then began a chapter in Pennsylvania history whose events make the spot on which they transpired most sacred. Valley Forge! The American army reached this place about the 19th of December. It is a deep, rugged hollow on the west side of the Schuylkill, about six miles above Norristown. The soldiers were too poorly clad to live in tents; so huts, 16 x 14, in the form of a village, were made with logs, and twelve men were assigned to each cabin.

Washington reported that when the army went into camp at Valley Forge "no less than 2,898 men were unfit for duty because they were barefoot and otherwise naked." They often sat up all night by the fires to keep warm. There

Valley Forge

The Sufferings

was a scarcity of provisions, the soldiers being without meat or bread for days at a time. Washington had to issue a proclamation, commanding that one-half of the grain in store within seventy miles of



Washington's Headquarters at Valley Forge.

his camp should be threshed out before the 1st of February and the other half before the 1st of March. The British gold at Philadelphia was more desirable than the Continental bills, and so many farmers sent their provisions to Howe. Horses and wagons being scarce,

the patriots yoked themselves to little wagons of their own making, or, like beggars, carried their wood and provisions on the back. Even straw to lay on the cold, wet earth in the cabins was wanting. There was no lack of provisions and clothing in the country; but by mismanagement in Congress the army was not supplied with them. Washington felt most keenly for his men, a fact well attested by the prayer which he sent to the throne of heaven from his headquarters in the house of Isaac Potts. Added to these trials was the famous plot of General Conway, the attempt to alienate Lafayette, and the clamor of Congress and the Assembly of Pennsylvania to drive the British out of Philadelphia. But Washington never shrank from the cause of American liberty as it lay helpless and groaning in Valley Forge.

While the Americans were experiencing all this suffering, Howe's army had one long round of pleasure in Philadelphia. The days were spent in pastime and the nights in entertainments. As Franklin said, "Howe did not take Philadelphia—Philadelphia took Howe." The officers played cricket and had cock-fights. A theater was established on South street. Major André painted the curtain, and was the soul of the enterprise. But quite different was the lot of the American prisoners of war in Walnut street jail! It was a veritable Libby or Andersonville; and its keeper—Cunningham—was the original of Marz. The treatment was cruel, the food was not fit for swine, and the dead were tumbled into pits in Washington Square, to mingle with the bones of Indians, paupers, and criminals, who had been buried there in the past. In the spring Howe was superseded by Clinton; and the officers gave a grand fête to the departing General. It was the famous *mischianza*—"a combination of the regatta, the tournament, the banquet and the ball." It was enacted at the country seat of Thomas Wharton, in Southwark, and began in the afternoon of the 18th of May with a grand regatta, which started down the Delaware from the foot of Green street and landed at the foot of Washington avenue. Here the procession of gay officers, beautiful ladies, and prominent citizens, headed by all the bands of the army, formed in line and marched between grenadiers and troopers up the slope to Wharton's mansion. Then followed a tournament. The festivities of the evening consisted of dancing, faro, fireworks, and feasting! and lasted until the sun came up over

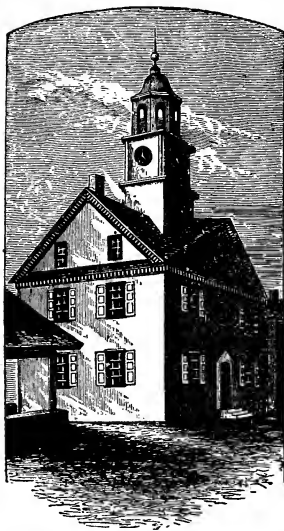
the Jerseys. Once, while this revelry was at its height, the sound of cannon was heard in the north. The English officers explained to their frightened partners in the dance that it was a part of the ceremony. But it was not. A dashing fellow from Washington's army, hearing of the mischianza, took a squad of men in the darkness to the line of redoubts between the Delaware and the Schuylkill, painted everything within reach with tar, and, at a given signal, set it on fire. The flames that shot up all along Poplar street startled Howe's army, and every cannon from river to river was fired. The British cavalry dashed out into the night, but the daring Americans were nowhere to be found.

Six days after this pageant of folly, Sir Henry Clinton decided to evacuate Philadelphia. The British learned that the American capital was not of much importance to them after all. The Congress had fled on wheels, and Pennsylvania had remained loyal. Washington's army, now thoroughly drilled by Baron Steuben, a Prussian officer who had come to Valley Forge in February, became a source of danger to the British. Besides, a French fleet was on the way to New York, and that city required the presence of Clinton. Just before the evacuation, on the 18th of June, three peace commissioners from England arrived in Philadelphia, and were willing to gratify "every wish that America had expressed." But it was too late. Franklin and his associates had secured an alliance with France; and the American Congress refused to entertain such propositions. It is said that Joseph Reed, one of Pennsylvania's delegates in Congress, was offered

10,000 pounds sterling and the best office in the colonies if he would promote the plans for peace; but that he promptly replied: "I am not worth purchasing; but such as I am, the King of Great Britain is not rich enough to do it." Clinton's army crossed the Delaware at Camden and Gloucester, New Jersey, in great haste; while the fleet, with several thousand Tory refugees and all their possessions on board, floated slowly down the bay. "The sky sparkled with stars; the air of the summer night was soft and tranquil, as the exiles, broken in fortune and without a career, went with despair from the only city they could love."

Washington moved his army out of Valley Forge, followed Clinton, and soon afterwards Washington fought the battle of Monmouth, where Follows Clinton Mollie Pitcher, of Carlisle, made herself famous. General Arnold was put in command of Philadelphia, to prevent the disorders that were expected to follow when the Whigs would return. Congress came back from York June 25, and the State government, from Lancaster, the next day. Wharton having died, George Bryan, Vice-President of the Supreme Executive Council, performed the duties of the President. The Whigs now began to punish the Tories. The Assembly passed an "act for the attainder of divers traitors," among whom were Joseph Galloway, Rev. Jacob Duché, and the Allens. The Quakers and the German sects were special objects of suspicion because they thought it wrong to take up arms. Active measures were taken for the trial of all persons accused of high treason; but only a few were executed. The excitement during the trial ran very

high ; and Arnold, who himself was afterwards court-martialed for lawless conduct while in command of Philadelphia, was not able to repress the disorder that arose. He speculated in government contracts, grew rich, and hob-nobbed with the aristocracy, marrying one of its daughters before "he fled from inquiry."



Provincial Court House at York,
where Congress sat, 1777-78.

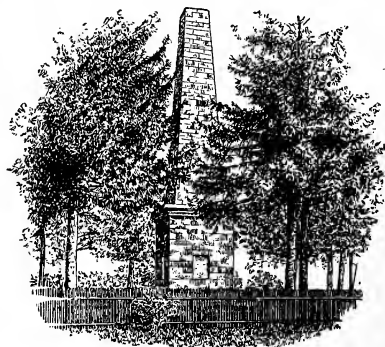
The year 1778 is remembered in Pennsylvania by one other event—the Wyoming Massacre. After Burgoyne's surrender the British organized the Tories and Indians to make war upon the frontiers of New York, Pennsylvania and Virginia. It was assumed, and correctly so, that the Americans could not give much attention to the frontier, be-

cause all their available forces would be required to oppose Howe after he had entered Pennsylvania. So the savages were set loose like hounds to murder and devastate. In the month of June the people of Wyoming became aware of the approach of a large force of Tories and Indians, under Colonel John Butler. An appeal for help was made to Congress, as nearly all the able-bodied men of Wyoming were in the Continental army; but no help came. So when the enemy appeared in the valley, Colonel Zebulon Butler, of the Revolutionary army, who was

home on a furlough, had only about three hundred raw recruits to oppose the enemy. Many people, with their families, had collected at Forty Fort, a little above the present site of Kingston. Here, on the 3d of July, Colonel Zebulon Butler, with Colonel Denison second in command, started his little band to meet a force three times as large.

The engagement began late in the afternoon. At first the fight was spirited on both sides ; but the men of Wyoming could not long resist the superior numbers. An order to fall back to a better position was misunderstood as a signal for retreat. The enemy then sprang forward, sounded the war-whoop from one end of the line to the other, rushed in with the tomahawk and spear, and defeated the brave band of heroic farmers. Only about fifty escaped, while those who did not fall in battle were put to death on the field in the most cruel manner. The refugees in

Forty Fort, consisting of old men, women and children, were allowed to depart to their homes. But the Indians soon began to rob, burn, plunder and destroy in every direction, in spite of an agreement that they would not. In a week or ten days these depredations became so



The Wyoming Monument.

numerous and heartrending that all the settlers who could get away, fled. Some came to Sunbury ; others

went to New York and Connecticut; but most of them took refuge in the wilderness of the Pokono mountains, and finally reached Stroudsburg. Those who sought safety in these mountains had nothing to eat except whortleberries. Some perished in a great swamp, which has ever since been known as "The Shades of Death."

The Wyoming massacre was not the only one in
Other Massacres Pennsylvania in the war of the Revolution. From 1777 to 1784, the frontiers of the State were one vast region of bloody massacres. Immediately after that of Wyoming, the wild, precipitate flight, known as the "Great Runaway," occurred in the valley of the West Branch. All summer the tomahawk and scalping knife had been doing their deadly work there, and when the news of the massacre on the North Branch arrived, the West Branch above Sunbury and Northumberland was abandoned by the settlers. Boats, canoes, hog-troughs, rafts, and every sort of floating things, were crowded with women and children. The men came down in single file, on each side of the river, and acted as guards. Sunbury became a frontier town, and the country below—Harris Ferry, Paxtang, and Middletown—was filled with the unfortunate refugees. Bedford and Westmoreland counties and the country about Pittsburg were likewise sorely afflicted at this time. A regiment of Continental troops was despatched from Valley Forge some time in the spring for the relief of the western frontier. Most of these soldiers had enlisted from beyond the mountains early in the war, and they were now glad to go back to defend their wives and children. The next year Sullivan's expedi-

tion started from Easton, and marched by way of Wyoming into the country of the Six Nations, in New York. He defeated an army of Tories and Indians, and destroyed many Indian villages. But the punishment had no lasting effect. The ravages continued. Other expeditions were organized, notably at Fort Pitt; and the border warfare raged until 1784.

On December 1, 1778, General Joseph Reed was elected President of the Council and chief executive of the State. He went into office

Paper Money
Troubles

at a time when Pennsylvania, in common with the other colonies, suffered greatly from the depreciation of the Continental money. The State, too, had issued paper money. There was about four times as much in circulation as was needed for the transaction of business, and prices were high and fluctuating. These conditions were very favorable for speculators, and a law was passed fixing the price of certain articles, to destroy speculation, and laying embargoes on the exportation of goods needed by the people. But these measures gave little relief. The militia at one time marched down Chestnut street, posting placards against Morris, Wilson, and others suspected of being speculators. At Wilson's house they stopped and killed the captain of the guard, and broke into the hallway, where for a time there was stabbing and clubbing.



Joseph Reed.

The question of slavery, which had periodically disturbed the ruling class in Pennsylvania ever since Pastorius' protest in 1688, came up now for final settlement, early in 1780. The

Slavery
Abolished

Friends, in their quarterly and yearly meetings, had repeatedly advised against importing and purchasing negroes. As early as 1705, a duty was imposed on slave importation. In 1711 it was forbidden altogether, but the Privy Council in England quashed the act. The following year, upon petition "signed by many hands," the Assembly assessed 20 pounds a head on imported negroes, thinking so high a duty would be prohibitory; but the act was again vetoed by the Crown. A letter written by a merchant in 1715 to an importer in Jamaica says: "I must entreat you to send me no more negroes for sale, for our people don't care to buy them. They are generally against any coming into the country." Yet, in spite of all opposition, it was the common incident of the day before the Revolution to vend blacks of both sexes at public sale, at the coffee houses in Philadelphia. Family servants were sent to jail to get their dozen lashes for acts of insubordination. But the laws regulating their conduct and punishment were always humane. They enjoyed as much liberty as their masters, were as well fed and as well clad, and generally lived under the same roof. The final movement for the abolition of slavery was made in 1779 by the Supreme Executive Council, in their message to the Assembly:

"Honored will that State be in the annals of mankind which shall first abolish this violation of the rights of mankind; and the memories of those will be held in grateful and everlasting remembrance who shall pass the law to restore and establish the rights of human nature in Pennsylvania."

On the 1st of March, 1780, George Bryan, ex-Vice President of the State, now a member of the As-

sembly, presented a bill for the gradual abolition of slavery in Pennsylvania, and urged its passage with great earnestness. It passed by a vote of 34 to 21. By its operation there were 3,737 slaves left in the State in 1790, 1,706 in 1800, 795 in 1810, 211 in 1820, and 67 in 1830.

The Assembly about this time made another effort to relieve the people from the withering blight of the Continental paper money. It tried to redeem it by taxation at the rate of 1 to 40. But neither this nor any other measure prevented the coinage of the phrase, "It is not worth a Continental." To assist Congress in providing for the army, Robert Morris and other financiers of the State established the Bank of Pennsylvania, the first bank in America. The last attempt to prolong the life of the "Continental" was made by the Executive Council in May, 1781; but the remedy proved fatal. Pelatiah Webster said of the proceedings: "Thus fell, ended and died the Continental currency, aged six years."

The Death
of the
Continental

The opening of the year 1781 brought President Reed face to face with a very serious problem. The Pennsylvania Line, in Washington's army at Morristown, had for some time been dissatisfied with the treatment they were receiving at the hands of Congress. Some had been kept in the army beyond their time of enlistment; all had arrearages of pay due them; and the money they had received was worthless. On New Year's day the Line broke out into open revolt and left the camp for Princeton. Here they were met by two spies, who tried to induce them to join the British army, but

The Revolt at
Morristown

these were handed over to Washington and executed. When Wayne, their commander, met the Pennsylvanians at Princeton, he proposed that they reduce their grievances to writing. This being done, President Reed and a committee of Congress set out to meet them. Before entering their camp, Reed sent a note to Wayne, asking whether it was safe for him to go within the picket line of the insurgents. Their committee replied that he need have no fear, that the whole Line was anxious to have him settle the unhappy affair. After a hard-fought battle of words the difficulty was amicably settled by Reed; and the Pennsylvania Line marched to Virginia to take a most honorable part in the closing battles of the Revolution. When offered a reward for delivering up the two spies, they refused it, saying: "Our necessities compelled us to demand justice from our government; we ask no reward for doing our duty to our country against its enemies."

The revolt of the Pennsylvania Line at Morris-
Complete town was an evidence of the complete
Exhaustion exhaustion of resources for the Revolu-
of the State tion. But none of the States was more
thoroughly drained than Pennsylvania. This State was not only the residence of Congress, with all its train of attendants and officers, but also of all the military mechanism of the country. From it the quartermaster principally drew his wagons, his horses, his camp equipage of all kinds, besides a great number of wagoners and artificers. Prisoners of war and state had been largely the inheritance of Pennsylvania. All this was done at great expense to the State, and burdened it with a heavy load of debt.

The substance of the people had been used, but in its place they had nothing but money made of rags. Pennsylvania's share of the supplies asked for by Congress in 1781, was equal in amount to eleven years' taxes and all the income of the State.

Reed's successor as President of the Supreme Executive Council was Vice-President William Moore, who entered upon his duties in November, 1781. Early the next year, Pennsylvania joined with Congress in chartering the Bank of North America, by which Robert Morris, the superintendent of finances for the Continental Congress, was enabled to restore the credit of the United States and transact its financial affairs with greater efficiency. It was the first incorporated bank in America, and it still exists.



William Moore.

Dickinson, having returned from his six years' sojourn in Delaware, whither he had gone after his defeat for reelection to Congress, soon regained his popularity. He was elected a member of the Supreme Executive Council in November, 1782, and became its President. The Executive Council, in April following, proclaimed the news that the preliminary treaty had been signed, and ordered the State flag to be hoisted and the bells to be rung. The prisoners of war confined in barracks at Carlisle, Lancaster and Reading were brought to Philadelphia and sent to New York. The chevaux-de-frize were removed from the Delaware, that the white wings of commerce might again flutter over its waters. But before the Quaker City could fully enjoy peace, a number of officers and soldiers of the Pennsylvania

Congress Leaves
Philadelphia

Line, in June, came from Lancaster and were joined by others, to demand of the Council and Congress a settlement of their accounts. Their demands were so



The State Flag.

insolent that the Council rejected them. Congress urged that the militia be called out to disarm the insurgents, but Dickinson did not favor a step so serious. Then Congress resolved to leave, and adjourned to meet at Princeton.

The leaders in this unfortunate affair were arrested and court-martialed. Two sergeants were sentenced to be shot and others were to be flogged. All were subsequently pardoned. The Assembly and the people of Philadelphia urged Congress to return, promising ample protection if it would do justice to the army and public creditors. But it resumed its sessions at Annapolis.

Peace being now assured, the State authorities turned their attention to the restoration of trade and industry. Commissioners were appointed to estimate the cost of opening a communication by means of roads and canals between the Susquehanna and the Schuylkill. The islands in the Delaware were divided between New Jersey and Pennsylvania, according to proximity, and distributed among the several counties along the river. The two States were to have concurrent jurisdiction between the banks. The Council of Censors, with Frederick A. Muhlenberg as president, held its first and only septennial session November 10, 1783, to September 24, 1784.

After the State government had been formed, laws were passed in 1777 requiring the oath of allegiance of all persons above eighteen years of age, in order to enjoy "the blessings of liberty and citizenship." It was a test of loyalty to the American cause, and those who refused to take it were regarded as Tories. Some of these did sympathize with Great Britain; but others declined to take the oath on account of religious scruples. This class included many people of means, who paid heavy taxes, directly or indirectly, and were peaceable and inoffensive during every stage of the Revolution. It was estimated that nearly half of the inhabitants were deprived of citizenship. In some places the number of persons qualified to hold office was insufficient to administer the local government. The agitation to repeal the test laws began in 1784, but was fruitless until 1789, when all disfranchised persons were restored to citizenship, and foreigners alone were required to take an oath of allegiance.

Franklin returned in 1785 from his nine years' service in Europe. He was soon after elected to the Executive Council and made its President. He thus became the chief executive of Pennsylvania at the extreme age of eighty years, serving until 1788. It was a singular coincidence that during the first year of the great scientist's administration, numerous applications were made to the Assembly for aid by scientific inventors. One had made a crucible from blue-stone; another wanted to convert bar-iron into steel; still another had a machine to clean wheat and make it into flour; a fourth asked encouragement in the making of tubes

bellows for blacksmiths; while John Fitch asked for the exclusive rights of steam navigation in Pennsylvania. Three years later one of his improved steam-packets carried passengers regularly for three months, from Philadelphia to Burlington, N. J.

In 1787, Philadelphia again became the scene of a great Federal event—the formation of the Constitution of the United States. The Constitutional Convention went into session May 25, in the State House, and after a stormy session of four months, ended its labors September 17. The delegates from Pennsylvania were all from Philadelphia—Benjamin Franklin, Thomas Mifflin, Robert Morris, George Clymer, Thomas Fitz Simons, Jared Ingersoll, James Wilson, and Gouverneur Morris. John Dickinson represented the State of Delaware. Pennsylvania's delegation was the largest. Of its eight members, the venerable President of Pennsylvania, Benjamin Franklin, now eighty-one years old, was the Nestor of the convention. The Doctor's



James Wilson.

speeches, on account of his physical infirmities, were read by his colleague, Mr. Wilson. It was Franklin who proposed daily prayers in the convention, and urged a spirit of conciliation when the contest about representation in Congress waxed hot, saying, "We are here to consult, not to contend." He advocated representation in Congress based on population; he opposed property qualification for representatives; and he was always a power when he spoke. While the members were signing their names, Franklin,

looking towards President Washington's chair, on the back of which was cut a sun, said to those around him: "I have often and often, in the course of the session, and in the solicitude of my hopes and fears as to its issue, looked at that figure behind the President without being able to tell whether it was the rising or the setting sun. Now I know it is the rising sun." Miffin, though saying but little, was prominent and influential as a general of the Revolution and a member of Congress. Robert Morris proposed General Washington as president of the convention and was well known to the members as the great financier of the Revolution. Clymer was one of the members who had the honor of having signed the Declaration of Independence; he made a number of speeches and, with Sherman, of Connecticut, was instrumental in keeping the term *slaves* out of the Constitution of the United States. Fitz Simons was a rich merchant, and objected to the prohibition of a tax on exports. Ingersoll, a leading lawyer, took little part, but afterwards acquired a national reputation. James Wilson was the best-read lawyer on the floor. Whatever of Blackstone went into the Constitution was tested by him. Gouverneur Morris has credit for more remarks and speeches than any other member of the convention except Madison. As chairman of the Committee on Arrangement and Style, Morris deserves the credit for the clear and simple language of the Constitution. Dickinson stood for the interests of the small States, and his advocacy secured the equality of representation in the Senate. He drafted the section providing for the formation of new States from parts of old ones.

While the thirty-nine members of the convention were signing the Constitution on the afternoon of the 17th of September, in a lower room of the State House, the Pennsylvania Assembly sat in a room above; and there, early the next morning, the document was read two days before Congress, in session in New York, received it. The press of Philadelphia published it on the 19th, and everybody praised "The New Roof" at first. Congress sent it to the States for ratification on the 28th. The Pennsylvania Assembly was to adjourn *sine die* the next day. The members friendly to the Constitution determined that a convention to adopt it should be called before adjournment. On the same day that Congress took its final action, and without knowing what that action was, George Clymer moved in the Assembly that a convention meet in Philadelphia to consider the adoption of the new constitution. The motion carried by a vote of 43 to 19; but before fixing the time and manner of election, the Assembly took a recess, to meet in the afternoon. As it took 46 to make a quorum, the 19 opposed to the convention remained away after the recess; and the Assembly had to adjourn until the next morning. The action of Congress having now become known, it was supposed that the opposition of the nineteen would give way; but it did not. A quorum had to be secured by dragging the members from Franklin and Dauphin counties—McCalmont and Miley—from their lodgings to the State House. With clothes torn into shreds and faces white with rage, the two men were made to sit in their places until the call for the con-

vention was complete. Thus it happened that Pennsylvania called a convention to consider the Federal Constitution twenty hours after the Congress in New York had agreed to submit it to the States, and twelve days after it had been finished by the convention.

The violent course of the Assembly, combined with about a dozen objections to the Constitution, made the campaign for the election of delegates very fierce. Wilson was the champion on the side of the Federalists. He made a powerful speech in favor of adoption in the State House yard. "Centinel," who wrote letters for the newspapers, took the opposite side, and was often abusive, not even sparing Washington and Franklin. Robert Morris was "Bobby, the Cofferer;" Mifflin, "Tommy, the Quartermaster-General;" Gouverneur Morris, "Gouverna, the cunning man." The convention met at the State House November 21, with Frederick A. Muhlenberg as chairman. The Federalists had won 2 to 1; for the Constitution was ratified December 12, by a vote of 46 to 23. The members comprised some of the best-known men—Thomas McKean, Benjamin Rush, and James Wilson, of Philadelphia; Anthony Wayne, of Chester; Abraham Lincoln, of Berks; Timothy Pickering, of Luzerne; William Findley, of Westmoreland; and Frederick Muhlenberg, of Montgomery. Those opposing the Constitution did so largely because it was in many ways different from their own State constitution. The latter had been the work of men from the frontier counties in 1776; and the representatives of these counties were generally the ones that opposed the Federal Constitution.

Pennsylvania
Adopts the
Constitution

Pennsylvania being the second State to ratify, there was not much demonstration made at the time. But when, on the 21st of June, 1788, New Hampshire, the ninth State, ratified it, Philadelphia and other towns resolved to celebrate the new Union on the 4th of July. The enthusiasm was unbounded, but generally peaceable. A serious riot broke out right after the ratification, in the town of Carlisle. Thomas McKean and James Wilson were burned in effigy, cannon were spiked, and a copy of the Constitution was burned.

The "New Roof" being up and Pennsylvania under it, the anti-Federalists met in convention at Harrisburg for the purpose of suggesting certain amendments. Twelve were proposed and recommended to the Assembly for submission to Congress. This action ended all opposition in Pennsylvania to the Constitution. Fifteen amendments had also been presented by the anti-Federalists in the Philadelphia convention. They were drawn up by Robert Whitehill, of Cumberland county, and were remarkable as being almost identical with the first ten amendments afterwards added to the Constitution. It is supposed that Madison, who prepared the amendments for Congress in 1789, made use of those offered by the anti-Federalists of Pennsylvania.

Benjamin Franklin, having declined a reelection on account of old age, was succeeded as President of the State, in November, 1789, by General Thomas Mifflin. In January following, the first election for Presidential electors was held, and in April, Philadelphia gave a royal welcome to Wash-

ington, the first President of the United States, as he passed through on his way to New York. The floating bridge at Gray's Ferry was so elaborately decorated that the passage over the Schuylkill seemed like that along a green lane. Arches of laurel spanned each end; and just as the carriage of the President passed under the western arch a laurel wreath was lowered upon his brow by a child clad in white. After a banquet and fourteen toasts, Washington resumed his journey.



Thomas Mifflin.

A new constitution having been adopted in 1790, the last President of the State under the old, General Mifflin, was elected the first Governor under the new. He served three successive terms, until 1799. With his administration began the system of internal improvements for which the State became noted. The funding of the national debt, the national bank, the impost, the excise—all tended to make money plentiful. The favorite form of improvement all over the country was the canal. In Pennsylvania, the Delaware, Schuylkill and Susquehanna were to be made navigable and connected with one another by means of canals. This eastern system was then to be linked in the same way to the waters of the Allegheny, Lake Erie and Lake Ontario. The Legislature also recommended a turnpike from Philadelphia to Lancaster, as well as roads in other parts of the State. To facilitate these schemes of internal improvement, companies were chartered by authority of the State. So many more shares were subscribed

in some of them than were authorized by law, that the names of the purchasers were put into a wheel, and enough drawn out to form the company.

The Federal government having gone into the banking business at Carpenters' Hall, Philadelphia, in 1791, through the establishment of the famous Bank of the United States, Pennsylvania followed the example in 1793. The Legislature chartered the Bank of Pennsylvania, and the State took one-third of the entire stock. Branches were established at Lancaster, Harrisburg, Reading, Easton and Pittsburg. The State continued the partnership for fifty years.

In 1793, the yellow fever appeared in Philadelphia. It lasted from August to November, and carried off about five thousand people. The streets were deserted by all except those who buried the dead. Exposed coffins on chair-wheels were constantly in sight, but no mourners accompanied them. The dead were hurriedly laid in large pits, which would receive many before filling up. Some 17,000 persons left the city, or one-third of the population. Germantown was a favorite place for the fugitives. Both the State and the United States governments moved their offices to that town.

THE CONSTITUTIONAL PERIOD

In March, 1791, Congress laid a tax of 25 cents a gallon on whisky manufactured in the United States. At that time the Mississippi was not yet open to the Americans for transportation; hence the farmers around Pittsburg had no

The Whisky
Insurrection

outlet for their grain. So they turned it into whisky, which found a market nearer home. The inhabitants of that section had an inborn hatred for excise taxes. Their Scotch-Irish ancestors had resisted such taxes in Ireland. Moreover, the Revolution had been fought without a tax by the United States government; and the pioneers beyond the mountains could not understand why one was necessary now. So in September, 1791, when a collector appeared in Washington county, he was fiercely assaulted and had to flee for his life. About the same time delegates from Fayette, Allegheny, Westmoreland and Washington counties met in Pittsburg and passed resolutions against the excise. Resistance more or less violent was made against the collection of the tax for several years, but no blood was shed until July 16, 1794. Then the house of the inspector, General Neville, was surrounded by a company of militia, and one of their number was killed by the shots that were exchanged. The next day Neville's house and barn were burned, but not until the leader of the militia, Major McFarlane, a veteran of the Revolution, had been shot by the occupants. The death of McFarlane greatly incensed the people, and a mass-meeting was held on Braddock's Field, August 1. It was resolved to march to Pittsburg, where the Federal collectors had their headquarters. Fearing the town would be burned by the "Whisky Boys," the people sent a committee out to reason with them. By the tact of Judge Brackenridge, who preferred "the loss of four barrels of old whisky to the loss of a quart of blood," they were led through the town and out of it again without doing any harm.

Pittsburg was saved by a "free treat," but the Federal government, as well as that of the State, now concluded that something stronger than whisky even was required to end the disturbance. President Washington sent a commis-



Albert Gallatin.

sion to make peace, if possible, and ordered an army of 12,000 men to be collected from Pennsylvania, New Jersey, Maryland and Virginia. Governor Mifflin sent Chief Justice McKean and General William Irvine to ascertain the state of the rebellion, and called a special session of the Legislature. Judge Brackenridge and Albert Gallatin acted as mediators between the commissioners and the insurrectionists, and after one month of hard work came to an amicable agreement. All those willing to do so were to sign papers signifying their submission to the government; but many failed to sign. Washington, therefore, ordered an advance of the army. Soon afterwards William Findley, at the head of a committee, met him at Carlisle, whither the President had come, and assured him that peace would be restored. Washington replied that the army was already on the march, but that no violence would be used if the insurrectionists had submitted. No further resistance was offered. It had been demonstrated that the Federal government was no rope of sand, to be broken whenever a State or a part of a State was opposed to a law.

The difficulties of the Federal government with France and England, when those nations commenced

war with each other in 1793, made themselves felt in the State. In common with the whole country, the people of Pennsylvania sympathized with France. Jay's treaty with England, made the following year, caused such a division of the Americans that they were all either Frenchmen or Englishmen in their politics. At the election for the Assembly, there were "treaty" and "anti-treaty" candidates. Genêt, the French minister, received the most flattering attention from the day he arrived until he was recalled. When Adet, his successor, ordered all Frenchmen in America to wear the tri-colored French cockade, everybody in Philadelphia wore it. Governor Mifflin and his associates in the State government openly sympathized with France. Even after France had asked a tribute from the American minister, and while "millions for defense; but not one cent for tribute," reëchoed over the land, the Pennsylvania Senate passed resolutions against a war with France. However, the House would not concur, and when war was imminent, Governor Mifflin called on the militia to prepare for defense. Joseph Hopkinson's "Hail Columbia," sung for the first time in a Philadelphia theater April 25, 1798, to the tune of "The President's March," added greatly to the war feeling. The words were caught up and repeated throughout the country.

The agitation for the removal of the capital from Philadelphia began in 1784. In that year a committee, which had been appointed on opening communication with the Susquehanna, reported that John Harris, of Harris' Ferry, had offered some land to the State, which it might use

Foreign Politics

Removal of the
State Capital

for public purposes. Soon afterwards other interior towns made efforts to secure the capital; but Harrisburg and Lancaster were the principal competitors. In 1795 Carlisle was the choice of the House, but not of the Senate. The next year Lancaster was selected by the House in preference to Carlisle or Reading; but the Senate again dissented. In 1798, Harrisburg and Wright's Ferry were voted for, but without an agreement. The following April Lancaster was selected to be the seat of government after the first Monday of November, 1799.

Early in Adams' administration, the Federal government imposed the so-called "house tax," which required the assessors to measure and register the panes of glass in windows. To the Germans the tax seemed tyrannous; and in the counties of Berks, Lehigh, Northampton, Montgomery and Bucks they resisted the enforcement of the law. From the fact that the women in certain places poured hot water on the assessors, the insurrection got the name of "Hot Water Rebellion;" while through its leader it also received the name of "Fries' Rebellion." John Fries, a soldier of the Revolution, was a well known character in the German section north of Philadelphia. He was an auctioneer, and was endowed with the power of leadership. With a plumed hat on his head, a pistol and a sword at his side, his little dog "Whisky" at his heels, and about sixty armed men around him, he marched from place to place, to the sound of fife and drum, and harangued the Germans on the injustice of the "house tax." He did this for several months before the government took any notice of it.

Finally, a United States marshal arrested twelve of his men and confined them in the Sun Inn, Bethlehem. Fries went to their rescue. He appeared before the inn in March, 1799, and demanded the surrender of the prisoners. The marshal had to yield, and Fries marched away in triumph. By order of President Adams, Governor Mifflin now called out the militia, and Fries, betrayed by "Whisky," was captured in a swamp south of Allentown. He was tried in Philadelphia for high treason, convicted and condemned to die; but President Adams pardoned him.

The successor to Mifflin was Thomas McKean, then Chief Justice. He, too, served three successive terms, 1799-1808. In a speech after his election he applied the epithets, "traitors, refugees, Tories, French aristocrats, British agents, apostate Whigs," etc., to the Federalists; and when Governor he removed the old soldiers of the Revolution from office as fast as he could. For this conduct he received a vote of censure in the Senate, and but narrowly escaped a like rebuke from the House. This unhappy beginning resulted in a bitter contest with the Legislature, lasting during his entire administration. At one time he was in danger of impeachment, one of the charges being that he allowed his clerk to affix the official signature to public documents by means of a stamp. In

Governor
McKean



Thomas McKean.

1799 many petitions for the unconditional abolition of slavery were sent to the Legislature. By the law of 1780, the children born of slaves thereafter were to be servants, not slaves, and that only until they were

twenty-eight years old. This condition was obnoxious to many people; and the free negroes offered to pay for freeing their brethren unconditionally.

In 1802 the Legislature passed an act which became the foundation of the public school system. It provided for "the education of the poor gratis." Great interest was shown, also, at the opening of the century, in architecture, manufacture, horticulture, literature, and the useful arts—a number of societies being chartered by the Legislature to promote one or more of these. But such useful things were lost sight of in the political turmoil of the time. In January, 1805, when Justice Chase, of the Supreme Court of the United States, was about to be tried at the bar of the Senate for "high crimes and misdemeanors," a famous trial of a like nature occurred in Pennsylvania. Three justices of the Supreme Court of the State—Edward Shippen, chief justice, and Jasper Yeates and Thomas Smith, associates—had been impeached by the House for the arbitrary committal of a suitor for contempt of court. H. H. Brackenridge, the fourth justice of the Pennsylvania Supreme Court, was also to be removed, but Governor McKean refused when the Legislature asked him to do so. Cæsar A. Rodney, of Delaware, was employed by the Legislature to act as counsel against the judges, because no lawyer in the State would do it. After a long struggle, the Senate came to a vote in the case of Shippen, Yeates and Smith. It stood for conviction—13 guilty and 11 not guilty. As three less than the required two-thirds voted guilty, the judges were acquitted.

The much-hated embargo act of the Federal government made itself felt in Philadelphia very early in 1808. Discontented, hungry and penniless sailors marched to the City Hall, under the folds of the Stars and Stripes, to ask the mayor what they should do to keep from starving. Yet the Pennsylvania Legislature, in common with that of other States, supported the embargo act in various resolutions. At the same time, it admitted that certain evils existed,—“to wit, the great scarcity of money in the Commonwealth;” and it appointed a committee to consider measures to stop the sale of property for the payment of debts.

After Thomas McKean had served as long as the Constitution would permit, he was succeeded by Simon Snyder, the first native executive of Pennsylvania born outside of a Quaker county. He served three terms—from 1808 to 1817. There were three parties in the field with a candidate for Governor—the Democrats (Snyder), the Constitutional Democrats, or “Quids” (Spayd), and the Federalists (Ross). The cry of the Federalists was “Free trade and no embargo.” The Democrats generally supported Jefferson and his embargo, and passed a resolution in the Legislature early in 1809 recommending that the members of the next Legislature “appear in clothes of domestic manufacture.” The Legislature also ordered “that no British precedent should be read or quoted in courts of justice, nor any British decision made after July 4, 1776, except those on maritime and international law.”

Effects of
the Embargo

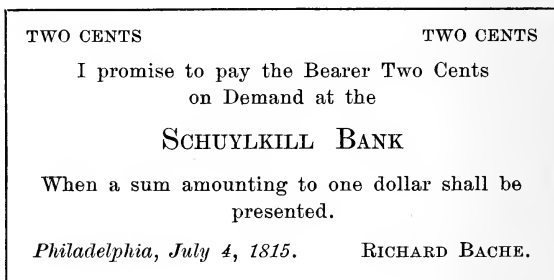
Governor
Snyder



Simon Snyder.

When the United States bank went out of existence in 1811, a great demand for State banks was made. Such was the mania for local banks that in 1814 a bill to charter forty-two of them was passed, vetoed by the Governor, and passed over his veto. After the capture of Washington by the British, the banks of Baltimore and Philadelphia suspended specie payment, a measure which was followed by the banks throughout the country.

Local Banks



The scarcity of coin gave rise to the use of notes for small sums—"shinplasters"—issued by individuals. With the establishment of banks all over the State, public improvements were extended. Petitions to the Legislature for money to improve the roads were especially numerous.

When the second war with Great Britain was declared, June 18, 1812, Pennsylvania was ready with three times as many troops as were required to fill her quota. In December following Governor Snyder, in his message to the Legislature, said :

The War of 1812

"The sword of the Nation, which for thirty years has been resting in the scabbard, has been drawn to maintain that inde-

pendence which it had gloriously achieved. In the war of the Revolution our fathers went forth, as it were, 'with a sling, and with a stone, and smote the enemy.' Since that period our country has been abundantly blessed and its resources greatly multiplied; millions of her sons have grown to manhood, and, inheriting the principles of their fathers, are determined to preserve the precious heritage which was purchased by their blood, and won by their valor."

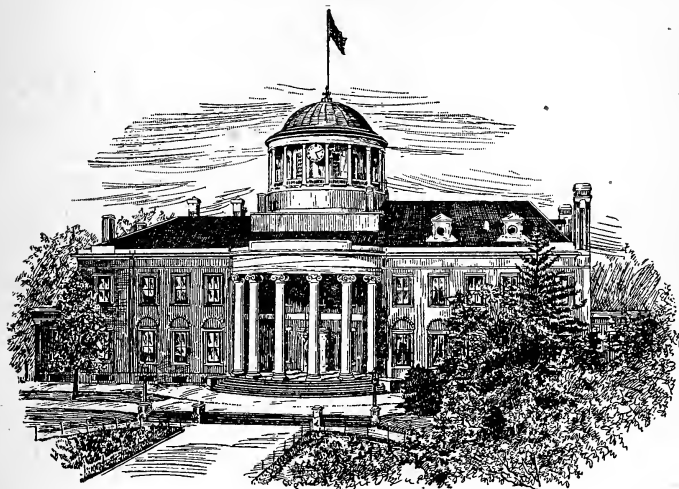
Pennsylvania's soil received none of the blood shed in this war; but her sons bled and died at Chippewa, Lundy's Lane, on Lake Erie, and at Baltimore, and shared in the glorious victory at New Orleans. When General Tannehill's brigade of 2,000 volunteer militia reached Niagara, they promptly crossed the line into Canada, and gallantly followed the flag of the United States government into a foreign country. The historic dialogue at Lundy's Lane—"Major, can you take that battery?" "I can try, sir"—was between General Brown, a native of Bucks county, and Major Miller, of Gettysburg.

The greatest contribution by Pennsylvania to the war of 1812 was what Erie did in helping ^{Perry's Fleet} to build and man Perry's fleet. Had it not been for Captain Daniel Dobbins, of Erie, Perry might never have been enabled to send the famous despatch, September 10, 1813: "We have met the enemy, and they are ours." Dobbins, as commander of a trading vessel, had the year before been a prisoner of the British at Detroit. Believing that his experience would be of value, he went to Washington and told the President and his Cabinet that a fleet ought to be built at Erie for the purpose of sweeping the British from the lakes. He returned with orders to build two gunboats. Late in October he gathered

a few house-carpenters, and by January, 1813, had made such progress that he was instructed to build two sloops-of-war. Every stick of timber had to be cut from the stump, while deep snows covered the roots and wintry blasts whistled through the tops. In March, when Perry arrived, the keels and ribs were ready at the harbor of Erie. He hastened the work still more by ordering men from Philadelphia and New York to assist. Frequently a piece of timber that became part of a ship on an afternoon had been part of a tree in the forest that morning. The men of Erie stood guard over the ships while in process of construction; they went to Buffalo and Pittsburg for supplies; and when at last Perry was forced to say to the naval authorities, "For God's sake, and yours, and mine, send me men and officers, and I will have the enemy's ships in a day or two," the militia around Erie responded to his call and helped to win the great victory that made him "the young Nelson of America."

One other event of this war caused a great stir within the borders of this State—the burning of Washington. Governor Snyder, August 26, 1814, in obedience to an order from President Madison, made a call for the militia of the counties nearest to the Capital. They assembled at Carlisle, York, and Marcus Hook. Those who were ordered to Washington took part in the attempt of General Winder to keep the British invaders out of the Capital. Among the heroes who won distinction on the sea were Commodore Stephen Decatur, Lieutenant James Biddle, and Captain Charles Stewart, each of whom was honored by the Legislature with a gold-hilted sword.

In February, 1810, Governor Snyder approved the act of the Legislature establishing permanently the capital at Harrisburg, before the close of October, 1812. The records were in danger of destruction at



The Old Capitol. Built 1819-21; destroyed by fire February 2, 1897.

Lancaster, and a more central place was desired. The places voted on were Lancaster, Harrisburg, Northumberland, Bellefonte, Columbia, Carlisle, Reading and Sunbury. Harrisburg was selected because a very great portion of the produce of the State would find its way to market by means of the Susquehanna and its branches. It was argued that men of capital would locate at the seat of government if it admitted of commerce and was within easy and close communication with Philadelphia. William McClay gave ten acres of land to the State, in addition to the four acres already appropriated by John Harris. The cor-

nerstone of the capitol was laid May 31, 1819; the building was completed in 1821 and first occupied by the Assembly January 3, 1822. Before it was completed, the State government was quartered in the old Dauphin county court-house.

Towards the close of Snyder's administration, there were old-school Democrats and new-school Democrats. The former were opposed to the system of caucus nomination, by which Congress and the State Legislature made known their preferences for President and Governor. The new school, in 1817, nominated William Findlay for Governor; the other wing of the party presented the name of Joseph Hiester to the voters of the State. The Federalists voted for Hiester; but Findlay carried the State by a small majority. When the Legislature met in December, petitions were presented protesting against the election of Findlay. A motion to suspend the inauguration was made in the House. Beyond causing much rancor, the petitions were fruitless.

William Findlay was Governor for one term only, from 1817-1820. The war between the two schools of the Democratic party over methods of nomination was kept up briskly, and party spirit ran high. Petitions were sent to the Legislature asking for an investigation into the conduct of the Governor. A committee was appointed to make a report of the charges, of which there were nine; but no action was taken, because the report of the committee was not in favor of it.

Governor Findlay was an ardent advocate of internal improvements. He presented a plan for the navigation of the principal rivers as near to their

sources as possible—the heads of the streams to be connected by short portages. In this he was but seconding a like movement by other States and the United States all along the Atlantic seaboard. During the second war with England, the Southern and Middle States were blockaded and the coast trade had to be abandoned. Instead, a system of inland trade sprang up between New England and the South, which resulted in certain trunk line routes running north and south. After the war, when the Indians and the British were no longer a hindrance to the settlement of the Northwest, great quantities of ware and merchandise had to be sent westward. But there were no roads in that direction; so the natural thing to do would be to open the rivers for navigation. Steamboats, which had hitherto been used only for passengers, were now to take the place of the "ox and horse marine" in carrying freight. Commissioners of Maryland and Pennsylvania jointly examined the Susquehanna, and reported that \$20,000 would clear the river from Harrisburg to Tioga Point. With a canal, twenty-three miles long, from the head of the West Branch to the Allegheny, the Mississippi valley could be reached. From the head of Chautauqua lake, a canal nine miles long would open an easy route to Lake Erie and the other great lakes. By means of another water route to Harrisburg and Pittsburg, by way of the Schuylkill, the Swatara and the Juniata, Philadelphia could be connected with the Pacific ocean at the mouth of the Columbia with only seventy-five



William Findlay.

miles of canal. Such were the calculations made to outdo New York on the north, and such were the dreams of Pennsylvania while the nightmare of the Erie canal disturbed her sleep!

At the election for Governor in October, 1820, the contest was entirely confined to State issues. The new-school Democrats had given Findlay a unanimous nomination for another term. Joseph Hiester, his opponent, was supported by the old-school Democrats and the Federalists. Under the constitution of 1790, the Governor had many offices to fill, and thus made many enemies. It was this that defeated Findlay for reëlection. At the presidential election in November, Pennsylvania was the only State in the Union that made any opposition to Monroe. It was based on his approval of the Missouri Bill. On election day, therefore, the anti-slavery men of Pennsylvania voted for DeWitt Clinton.



Joseph Hiester.

Governor Hiester served one term—from 1820 to 1823. He foresaw the party strife that awaited him; for he urged the Legislature in his first message to reduce the great power and patronage of the Executive. Findlay became a candidate for the United States Senate in January following; but no one getting a majority, the Legislature adjourned *sine die*. This unfinished business increased the rancor of party; but early in 1822 ex-Governor Findlay was elected Senator, and that contest was eliminated from the struggle between the two factions.

The movement for internal improvement did not abate during Hiester's term. The great highways to the West were not to be a mere fancy. The Legislature in 1821 chartered a number of canal and turnpike companies, and appropriated money for the same. The subject of education received considerable attention at this time. Governor Hiester said in his message: "Above all, it appears an imperative duty to introduce and support a liberal system of education, connected with some general religious instruction."

Public
Improvements
and Education

Hiester not being a candidate for reëlection, the Democrats nominated John Andrew Shulze for Governor in 1823. The Federalist candidate was Andrew Gregg, a former Democrat. Shulze was elected, and was the choice of the Democratic wing which supported Calhoun and Crawford against Jackson in 1824. However, the hero of New Orleans got the electoral vote of Pennsylvania by an overwhelming majority. Crawford, having been nominated by a congressional caucus, had no chance in this State, where the Democrats had been split since 1817 on methods of nomination.

The Elections of
1823 and 1824

Governor Shulze was in office from 1823 to 1829, serving two terms.

Assuming that the Legislature knew the wants of the State better

than he, Shulze, in his first message, recommended but one thing for their consideration—education. Said he, "Convinced that even liberty without knowledge is but a precarious blessing, I can not too strongly recommend this subject to

Governor
Shulze



John Andrew Shulze

your consideration." The Legislature accordingly passed a law providing for the education of all children between six and fourteen at public expense; but no child was to have this privilege for more than three years. Being violently opposed, the law was repealed in 1826.

The subject of internal improvements was another very live question at this time. Coal, iron and manufactures were becoming great industries in Pennsylvania. The Schuylkill and the Union canals, connecting Philadelphia with the Susquehanna, were finished. The great Pennsylvania canal was begun near Harrisburg in 1827. The several parts, including the Delaware, the Columbia, the Harrisburg, the Juniata, and the Western divisions, having altogether a length of 425 miles, were completed in 1830. A board of five canal commissioners was created by the Legislature in 1825, to manage this stupendous system for the State. The money needed was borrowed from banks by authority of the Legislature. Governor Shulze opposed this plan, favoring taxation to pay at least a part of the enormous expense. But the people did not care for debts in this "era of good feeling," and before the close of Shulze's second term the State had borrowed \$6,000,000. It required all his skill and energy to remedy the evils that followed.

During the Presidential campaign of 1824, when four candidates were before the people, the old parties were broken up. The name *Federalist* sank into oblivion. Its place for a brief period was taken by the anti-Masons, who, in 1829, named Joseph Ritner as their candidate for Governor.

nor. The Democratic candidate was George Wolf, who won the election by a majority of 17,000. When Governor Wolf assumed office, he reported to the Legislature that \$8,300,000 had been borrowed by the State since the first loan for public improvements was authorized in 1821, and that \$3,459,533 was still needed to complete the canals and railroads included in the system. The public works were pushed to completion, and in a few years Governor Wolf and others, upon whose shoulders the responsibility rested heavily for a time, had the proud satisfaction of seeing the State prosper greatly under its system of water communication. "Clinton's Big Ditch" in New York now had a worthy rival.



George Wolf.

Governor Wolf, in his first inaugural address, like all his predecessors under the constitution of 1790, addressed himself to the subject of public education, and proved himself a warm friend of that cause. But all the Governors, from Mifflin down to Wolf, and all the legislative reports, bills, discussions and enactments, reached no higher ground than the free instruction of the poor, or, at best, a general system of free primary instruction. Up to 1830, the great free-school system, as we now have it, was still in embryo. Even Wolf, when he became Governor, spoke only of "ensuring to every indigent child in the Commonwealth the rudiments of learning." But in his message to the Legislature of 1830-31, he gives evidence of broader ideas when he speaks of the blessings of education to "the whole

community," to "every individual susceptible of partaking of them," "to the poor, as well as to the rich."

"I am thoroughly persuaded that there is not a single measure of all these which will engage your deliberations in the course of the session of such intrinsic importance to the general prosperity and happiness of the people of the Commonwealth; to the cause of public virtue and public morals, to the hopes and expectations of the rising generation, to whom the future political destinies of the Republic are to be committed, or which will add so much to the sum of individual and social improvement and comfort, as a general diffusion of the means of moral and intellectual cultivation among all classes of our citizens."

The people, too, had advanced. Petitions for the establishment of a better system of public education had come before the Legislature from twenty-four counties, while only a few remonstrances were presented. Much credit is due to the Pennsylvania Society for the Promotion of Public Schools. It memorialized the Legislature repeatedly in favor of public schools. Yet all that was done at the session of 1830-31 was to provide for a "common school fund," the interest of which was to be distributed and applied to the support of common schools in a manner to be determined by future legislation. In his next message, the Governor emphasized the importance of further legislation. Yet, though the question came up annually thereafter, nothing was accomplished until 1834. The people had become wide awake now. Public meetings were held all over the State, resolutions were passed, comparisons with other States were made, and an increased number of free-school members was in both houses of the Legislature. The result was that

The Common
Schools
Established

on March 15, 1834, "An Act to Establish a General System of Education by Common Schools" was passed. In the House but one man voted nay; in the Senate, three.

In strange contrast with this unanimity was the opposition to the law in the next Legis-

The Common
Schools Saved

lature. A majority of the members went to Harrisburg resolved to repeal it. The enemies of free schools had attacked the measure of 1834 in all parts of the State. Families, neighborhoods, churches, newspapers—all quarreled with one another and among themselves. In some instances members of the Legislature who had voted for the free-school law made humiliating and dishonorable confession of having done wrong, else they would not have been returned. The Senate was especially hostile to the act of 1834, and repealed it in March, 1835. Thirteen of the nineteen who voted for the repeal had the previous year voted for free schools. The House, fortunately, was more friendly; but what it would have done had it not been for the speech of one member—Thaddeus Stevens—cannot be told. It was said by eye-witnesses of the great fight in that body that Stevens saved the 11th day of April, 1835, for the common schools in Pennsylvania.



Thaddeus Stevens.

"Who would not rather do one living deed than have his ashes enshrined in ever-burnished gold? Sirs, I trust that when we come to act on this question, we shall take lofty ground—look beyond the narrow space which now circumscribes our vision, beyond the passing, fleeting point of time on which we stand—and so cast our votes that the blessing of education

shall be conferred upon every son of Pennsylvania—shall be carried home to the poorest child of the poorest inhabitant of the meanest hut of your mountains, so that even he may be prepared to act well his part in this land of freemen, and lay on earth a broad and a solid foundation for that enduring knowledge which goes on increasing through increasing eternity."

Governor Wolf was nominated for a third term ; but was defeated by Joseph Ritner, the anti-Mason and Whig candidate, who had been his opponent twice before. Rev. H. A. Muhlenberg, another candidate, divided the Democratic vote. "Public Education," the banner under which Governor Wolf fought his campaign, had much to do with his defeat. But Ritner, although some of his supporters were "no-school-tax" and "no-free-school" men, proved to be an equally staunch friend of the new law. In his annual messages he favored increased State aid to the common schools, and had the satisfaction of seeing it raised from \$75,000 to \$400,000 a year. He was ably supported in his policy by his Secretary of the Commonwealth and Superintendent of Common Schools, Thomas H. Burrowes.



Joseph Ritner.

Governor Ritner's administration was also charged with the task of making the public works "answer the great object for which they had been originally designed—the public good." This proved to be a difficult task on account of financial troubles. A vast amount of paper money had been issued while the works were in process of construction. Ritner wanted this kind of money reduced to within "the

actual value and amount of its principal." In the panic of 1837 (see any U. S. history) the banks all suspended specie payment, and paper money was the only medium of exchange. Jackson's famous "specie circular" and other measures had forced gold and silver out of circulation.

The adoption of a new constitution was the last important event of Governor Ritner's

Governor Porter

administration. His successor was David R. Porter, who was Governor from 1838 to 1845. The campaign was very heated, and when the election



David R. Porter.

was over the friends of Governor Ritner resolved to make an investigation of alleged frauds. The Legislature which met December 4, 1838, was anti-Masonic and Whig in the Senate; in the House both parties claimed a majority. Accordingly, two Speakers were elected in the House—Thomas S. Cunningham, of Beaver county, by the anti-Masons and Whigs, and William Hopkins, of Washington county, by the Democrats. Both Speakers occupied seats on the platform, a double-headed organization was effected, and both factions adjourned, to meet the next day. But the anti-Masons and Whigs met again in the afternoon. Some spectators, friends of the Hopkins party, went up to the platform and carried the Speaker *pro tem.* down into the aisle. Overcome by superior numbers, the Cunningham House then adjourned to what is now the Lochiel Hotel. The Senate also had to adjourn, the Speaker jumping "out of a window twelve feet high, through thorn bushes and over a seven-foot picket fence."

Things now assumed a threatening aspect. A public meeting was held counselling moderation; business was suspended for several days; Governor Ritner called out the militia under General Patterson; and, had not President Van Buren declined to order them, United States troops from Carlisle would have been on the scene too. The presence of the bayonet enabled the peacemakers to restore quiet. The Senate recognized the Democratic wing of the House as the rightful organization, and what is known as the "Buck-shot War" came to an end. The ammunition for the infantry at this time was buck-shot cartridges. It is said that the Cunningham men made some of these cartridges at their headquarters and sent them by a negro to the arsenal, to be used on the mob; that the negro was caught and compelled to give up his cartridges to the captors, who distributed them among their friends as mementoes. Hence the name "Buck-shot War."

The suspension of specie payment continued to disturb business. In 1842 an act was passed by the Legislature compelling banks to resume. Refusal to do so was to be followed by a forfeiture of their charters. Some resumed; others tried but had to close their doors, while a few refused to obey the law. So depreciated paper money remained the currency until the Legislature agreed to fill the State's empty treasury by means of taxation—a measure that had been strongly urged by Wolf. The newspapers of those days all published rates of discount and descriptions of counterfeit notes, and these were consulted by the people when they paid or received paper money.

Governor Porter had occasion to make a defense of the Germans and the German language in one of his veto messages. An act had been passed abolishing the printing of the laws in the German language. One-third of the population was German. In most of the eastern counties, German was the language of daily intercourse, of the schools, and of the newspapers. Governor Porter could, therefore, see nothing unreasonable in publishing the laws in the only language those people could understand. A few years later, when a Superintendent of Public Printing was established, it was ordered that he should receive bids for both English and German printing, and there was an English and a German State Printer until 1856.

The Missouri Compromise had resulted in a general movement in the North against slavery.

Abolition societies were formed, newspapers were established, and men and women took the platform. In 1833, a convention met at Philadelphia and formed the American Anti-Slavery Society. This agitation brought on riots in Philadelphia between the whites and the blacks. The most serious occurred when Pennsylvania Hall was dedicated, in May, 1838. It had been erected by the Anti-Slavery Society for the free discussion of that cause. All went well until the evening of the third day, when a crowd of roughs threw stones into the windows and hissed and hooted the speakers. The next night a larger body put out the lamps in the neighborhood, broke into the hall, set it on fire, and turned on the gas to assist the flames. The work of destruction was complete; for nothing but the walls was left of this monument to free speech.

Race Riots

In 1843, a new party appeared in American politics—the Native American—which, among other things, held that foreigners should not be appointed to office. In Philadelphia the movement was attended the next year by disorderly meetings, fatal riots, and the burning of houses and churches. In May, Governor Porter ordered General Patterson to restore order with the militia, which he did. But on the following Fourth of July there was a grand Native American procession in Philadelphia. This revived bitter memories, and the rioting began anew, lasting for several days. The city was put under martial law. Troops moved upon the mob with deadly effect; while the rioters procured a cannon and fired chains, bolts, spikes and other missiles at the soldiers. The Governor, who had come to Philadelphia in person, now called out additional troops, and was soon able to withdraw the militia and entrust the city again to the mayor. The Legislature then passed a law strengthening the government of the city of Philadelphia, and the riots which had disgraced the city for ten years ceased.



Francis R. Shunk.

According to the Constitution of 1838, the Governor could not hold office "longer than six in any term of nine years." Governor Porter, therefore, retired, and was succeeded by his Secretary of the Commonwealth, Francis R. Shunk, who served one term and about six months

of a second term. Having become ill, Governor Shunk, July 9, 1848, addressed a pathetic letter from his death-bed to the people of Pennsylvania, and

resigned his office. He died, deeply lamented, July 30, at Harrisburg.

"In taking leave of you under circumstances so solemn, accept my gratitude for the confidence you have reposed in me. My prayer is that peace, virtue, intelligence, and religion may pervade all your borders ; that the free institutions you have inherited from your ancestors may remain unimpaired till the latest posterity ; that the same kind Providence which has already so signally blessed you may conduct you to a still higher state of individual and social happiness ; and when the world shall close upon you, as I feel it soon about to close upon me, that you may enjoy the consolation of the Christian's faith, and be gathered, without a wanderer lost, into the fold of the Great Shepherd above."

Governor Shunk was chief executive of Pennsylvania during the Mexican war. President Polk called for six regiments from

The Mexican War

this State. In response, ninety companies were formed, making three regiments more than were asked, while only two regiments and several detached companies were mustered into service. These distinguished themselves by their bravery at Vera Cruz, Cerro Gordo, Chapultepec and Mexico. In memory of their valor the State erected a towering monument on Capitol Hill, at Harrisburg. The victories of peace during this administration were equally important. In 1845, the first telegraph poles were erected within the State, and a line was opened from Philadelphia to New York. The first movement toward the construction of the Pennsylvania railroad between Harrisburg and Pittsburg took place in the same year.

After Governor Shunk's resignation there was an interregnum until July 26, when the Speaker of the Senate, agreeably to the Constitution, took the office for the unexpired term.

Governor
Johnston

The person who thus became acting Governor was William F. Johnston, and he was nick-named "His Accidency." Johnston was also the choice of a small majority at the election for the unexpired term. He



William F. Johnston

belonged to the Whigs, who were in the ascendency in 1848, electing General Taylor President. In the North they were opposed to the extension of the slave power. In Pennsylvania the Assembly passed an act prohibiting judges of the State from executing the fugitive-slave law of 1793, and forbidding the use of the jails for the detention of fugitive slaves. The privilege of non-residents to keep slaves temporarily in the State was also cancelled. These acts were severely condemned by the Southern States.

In 1850, a new fugitive-slave law was passed by Congress, by which United States commissioners were authorized to turn over a negro to anybody who claimed him as an escaped slave. For years the fugitive slave had felt safe when he reached Pennsylvania; but now he had to flee to Canada. In this he was assisted by an organization known as the "Underground Railroad." The origin of this name may be traced to Columbia, Lancaster county. That town was laid out by descendants of the Quaker John Wright (see p. 78), and they reserved some lots in it for free colored people. It, therefore, became a refuge for runaway slaves. Their masters could track them as far as Columbia, where all traces disappeared; and it was declared that "there must be an underground rail-

The
Underground
Railroad

road" leading out of it. Through the secret assistance of the anti-slavery people, the fugitive slaves were sent across Lancaster, Chester, Montgomery and Bucks counties to West Chester, Philadelphia, Quakertown and Stroudsburg. To these points the negroes would travel in small parties by night and be concealed by friends in cellars, garrets, hay lofts, and other hiding places, till all danger from pursuit had passed. Another line came up from Maryland through Chester county. Some fugitive slaves entered the State by way of Bedford and followed the mountains to Potter county, whence they were forwarded to Canada. Erie, too, was a favorite station. Under the law of 1850, the least assistance given to a fugitive slave was punished if it was discovered. A man in Cumberland county was tried in the United States court for giving a few slaves something to eat after a night's rest in his barn. Though not convicted, he had to sell his farm to pay the expense of the trial.

In 1851, a serious riot occurred at Christiana, Lancaster county, one of the stations of the The Riot
Underground Railroad. It grew out of an at Christiana
attempt to arrest three fugitive slaves harbored in the cabin of a negro farm hand named Parker. The owner of the slaves, accompanied by a United States marshal and his posse, appeared early one morning in September. A demand to surrender was answered by a shot from the garret and the blowing of a big dinner horn. As a gang of kidnapers had been about for some time, the neighbors understood the signal as that for serious action. White men and colored men with guns, scythes, and clubs, ran from every direction. The slave-owner was advised to

leave; but he wanted his property, "dead or alive." In the encounter which followed he himself was mortally wounded by one of his own slaves. A number of the free colored men were arrested and indicted for treason; but only one was tried, and he was acquitted. The riot at Christiana caused a profound sensation all over the country. It happened in the midst of the campaign for Governor, and became an issue at the election.

Governor Johnston was defeated for a second term by William Bigler, the Democratic candidate, who served from 1852 to 1855. The common school system having been extended to every district in the State in 1849, improvements in it could be made more easily and effectually. In his first annual message, Governor Bigler made a strong plea for professional teachers and other needed improvements; and he had the satisfaction of signing a bill creating the office of county superintendent. Provisions for the education of feeble-minded children were also made during his term.



William Bigler.

The enormous State debt, amounting in 1848 to more than \$40,000,000, was reduced by \$700,000 during the previous administration by means of a sinking fund. The Governor, therefore, urged the completion of the canal along the North Branch of the Susquehanna—a work that had been neglected for ten or twelve years. The canal was to give an outlet to the boundless coal-fields in that region. Another powerful impulse to the development of the

State was given by the completion of the Pennsylvania railroad, in 1854. The era of great expenditures was now about over. Governor Bigler might well congratulate the people on the fact that henceforth money would flow into the treasury instead of out of it.

In the election for Governor in October, 1854, the Whigs and Native Americans

Governor Pollock

elected their candidate, James Pollock, against William Bigler, Democrat, and B. Rush Bradford, Free Soil, by a large majority. The question of slavery was disrupting both the Whigs and Democrats throughout the country. This rupture in the old parties, and the immense foreign immigration about the middle of the century, gave a new but brief lease of life to the Native Americans. This party had now come to be called the "Know-Nothing Party," from the fact that its members, when questioned about their purposes and principles, would say, "I don't know."



James Pollock.

In 1857, the Legislature passed an act directing the main line of public works between Philadelphia and Pittsburg to be sold. The Pennsylvania Railroad Company purchased them for \$7,500,000. The canals on the Susquehanna and its branches above the mouth of the Juniata, together with the Delaware division, were sold the following year to the Sunbury and Erie Railroad Company for \$3,500,000. These canals, after the railroads had been built, had failed to be a source of revenue to the State. The proceeds of the sale greatly lessened the public debt, and the people were relieved of bur-

The Public
Works Sold

densome taxation. The transfer of the canals and railroads to private corporations closed the history of public improvements in the line of transportation.

In 1857, a great financial panic occurred in the United States, and "a wave of bankruptcy swept round the civilized world." It was due to speculation, resulting, probably, from the discovery of gold in California and Australia. The banks of Pennsylvania, in common with others all over the country, became more or less embarrassed, and had to suspend specie payments. Governor Pollock called an extra session of the Legislature, in order to release the banks from the penalties previously prescribed for suspension, and to give relief to debtors. Through this timely action, ruin and bankruptcy were avoided. The year 1857 is also memorable in the history of the State as closing the career of one of her greatest sons—Dr. Elisha Kent Kane, the Arctic explorer. His body lay in state in Independence Hall, was viewed by thousands of people, and followed to the grave by scientists, statesmen, professors and students from all over the land.

In the midst of the financial disaster came the campaign for Governor. William F. Packer was nominated by the Democrats, David Wilmot by the Free Soilers, and Isaac Hazlehurst by the Americans. The year before, the Republican party had made its appearance as a national organization at Pittsburg, and a few months later nominated its first candidate for President, at Philadelphia. David Wilmot received the support of the Republicans because the new party was to absorb the Free Soilers. The Democratic candidate was successful.

When Governor Packer assumed office in January, 1858, the currency of the State was still in a disordered condition. But the attention of the people of Pennsylvania, from 1858 to 1861, was riveted on national affairs. Two days after the inauguration of Pennsylvania's only President, the Supreme Court of the United States decided that a slave could be taken into the territories the same as a horse or an ox, and that, therefore, Dred Scott, the Missouri slave, was not a free man. A little later Buchanan, ignoring the vote of the free settlers against it, urged the admission of Kansas as a slave State. These acts of the government at Washington alienated many of the President's supporters in Pennsylvania, chief of whom was John W. Forney.

Governor Packer



William F. Packer.

The next affair to add fury to the political fire was the raid of John Brown, one Sunday night in October, 1859, and his execution on the gallows, December 2. Brown had made Chambersburg his base of operations for some weeks, and was known there as Dr. Smith, engaged in mining in the State of Maryland. When his sentence of death had been passed, the Abolitionists of the State were filled with indignation. At a meeting in Philadelphia, on the morning of the hanging, Lucretia Mott—the Quaker Abolitionist—and other speakers expressed their sympathy, under a storm of hisses and groans. Two days later the body of Brown passed through the city, and there was a great clamor from the Abolitionists and the colored people for a view of

John Brown's
Raid

it. For fear of violence, a trick was played on the crowd outside the depot. A box, in imitation of a coffin, was solemnly carried out by six men, while the real body was quietly and safely conveyed to the New York ferry. Fresh alarm and anxiety were created when, in the same month, Governor Wise, of Virginia, requested the southern medical students in Philadelphia to finish their course at Richmond and other cities in the South.

The year 1860, from January to December, was given to one continuous agitation of the slavery question, particularly in its bearings on the elections for President and Governor. The Democrats of the State were divided in the choice for President, between Breckenridge and Douglas; on the candidate for Governor, Henry D. Foster, they were united. The Republicans had a majority for Lincoln, and elected Andrew G. Curtin Governor. Bell, the Union candidate for President, got about 12,000 votes in Pennsylvania. When Governor Packer wrote his last message to the Legislature, South Carolina had already seceded, and other States were considering the same step. "The advocates of secession," said the Governor, "claim that the Union is merely a compact between the several States composing it, and that any one of the States, when aggrieved, may, at its pleasure, declare it will no longer be a party to the compact. This doctrine is clearly erroneous."

The first decided resistance to President Buchanan's Secretary of War, who was a Southerner, and quietly strengthened the military posts of the South, came from Pittsburg,

The Election
of 1860

First Resistance to
the South

late in December, 1860. It was learned that 700 tons of arms and ammunition were to be shipped from the arsenal at Lawrenceville, Allegheny county, to New Orleans. Several public meetings were held, and were attended by thousands of people. Resolutions were passed that the President should purge his Cabinet of disloyal members, and, as a Pennsylvanian, see to it that the Republic suffer no detriment, as long as it were in his hands. While a committee went to Washington to protest, cannon were conveyed to the wharf and loaded on the steamer. At this critical moment Edwin M. Stanton, Buchanan's Attorney-General, sent a telegram that the order would be countermanded in a few days.

On the 15th of January, 1861, began the most memorable administration in the history of Pennsylvania—that of the "War Governor," Andrew G. Curtin. In his inaugural address, he declared that Pennsylvania would "render a full and determined support of the free institutions of the Union," and pledged himself to defend the Constitution against all its enemies. The Legislature likewise took a firm stand in behalf of the Constitution and the Union. When Lincoln stopped at Harrisburg, February 22d, on his way to Washington, he was enthusiastically received in the chamber of the Assembly, where the members of both houses had assembled to greet him and to hear his inspiring oratory. It was after this reception that Lincoln's famous secret ride to Washington was planned at the Jones House

Governor Curtin



Andrew G. Curtin.

(now the Commonwealth Hotel). He had been informed that a plot existed in Baltimore to assassinate him on his way through that city. As it had been published far and wide that he was to leave on the Northern Central Railroad early the next morning, Governor Curtin, Secretary Slifer, Senator McClure, and Colonel Scott, of the Pennsylvania Railroad, decided, very much against Mr. Lincoln's wishes, that he should leave Harrisburg that evening and pass, by way of Philadelphia, through Baltimore at an unexpected hour. To deceive the throng outside the hotel, Governor Curtin called for a carriage and had himself and the President-elect driven in the direction of the Executive Mansion. When near there, a circuitous route was taken to the depot. Lincoln, accompanied by a friend, who was armed with a small arsenal of weapons, hastily took a special train for Philadelphia. Colonel Scott then, with his own hands, cut all the telegraph wires leading out of the city and nervously awaited a cipher despatch that Lincoln was to send when he arrived at Washington. It was a long, anxious night for those who were in the secret. With the dawn of day came these words — "Plums delivered nuts safely"—signifying that all was well. Lincoln always regretted that he had gone to Washington in that way; for it is not believed that any plot to assassinate him had existed.

The day after Fort Sumter was evacuated, President Lincoln called for 75,000 troops, Pennsylvania's quota being 14,000. Governor Curtin telegraphed the call all over the State, and so quick was the response that five Keystone companies now wear the proud badge of the "First Defenders."

They were the Ringgold Light Artillery, of Reading; the Logan Guards, of Lewistown; the Washington Artillery and the National Light Infantry, of Pottsville; and the Allen Rifles, of Allentown. The Ringgold company was the first to reach Harrisburg, arriving there the day after the President's call. In the streets of Baltimore the "First Defenders" suffered the taunts, sneers and insults of the same mob that attacked the Sixth Massachusetts the next day. But they never wavered under the constant fire of bricks, clubs, stones and earth. After they had boarded the train for Washington, the mob tried to derail the cars, detach the locomotive and break the machinery. During it all, the Governor of Pennsylvania, with breathless anxiety, listened to the click of the telegraph at Harrisburg, as it reported step after step of the perilous march through Baltimore. At 7 o'clock on the evening of the 18th the "First Defenders" reported at Washington. Congress afterwards passed a resolution, thanking "the 530 soldiers from Pennsylvania who passed through the mob at Baltimore and reached Washington on the 18th of April last, for the defence of the National Capital."

Recruits now poured into Harrisburg by the thousands, overflowing the depots, the streets, and the capitol grounds. A great camp was established, called Camp Curtin, in the northwest suburbs. Before the end of the month twenty-five regiments were formed there and sent to the front, while thirty more were offered but not accepted. Simon Cameron, Secretary of War, Thaddeus Stevens, member of Congress, and Governor Curtin, all favored a much larger army than Lincoln had called for.

On the 15th of May the Legislature, in extra session, ordered the formation of the famous Pennsylvania Reserves. George A. McCall was appointed major-general, and John F. Reynolds, George G. Meade and O. E. C. Ord, brigadier-generals. They numbered 16,000 men,—thirteen regiments of infantry, one of cavalry, and one of artillery,—who were to serve three years. They were to be drilled and equipped, ready for any call that might be made. The wisdom of this measure was seen in July, when the Union forces came rushing back from Bull Run, defeated and disorganized. The President instantly called for the Pennsylvania Reserves. Under the call of "Father Abraham for five hundred thousand more," the Reserves now entered upon a career of honor and glory.

In 1862, the State was called on to do little except to furnish her quota of troops; but the people in their private capacity did much. Mason and Dixon's Line was the gateway to the South during that year, the Mississippi valley being still in the hands of the Confederates. As the troops passed through our cities and towns on their way to the front, acts of kindness innumerable were shown to them. Train loads were refreshed with sandwiches and coffee. In Philadelphia, throughout the war, the Union and Cooper-shop volunteer refreshment saloons were kept open with free contributions. Nearly a million of soldiers from the North and East, as they passed to and fro, were made happy with something to eat and drink. At one time a fair was held in Logan Square and \$1,500,000 raised for the sick and wounded.

In August, 1862, a State draft, under the direction of the United States, was made. The men drafted could furnish substitutes, for whom as much as \$1,500 was paid. A regular business of buying and selling substitutes sprang up at Camp Curtin, and enormous profits were made in the traffic. Substitutes were employed who were incompetent or disloyal, shirking duty in the field and deserting at the first opportunity. In 1863, a second draft was made, but by the direct authority of the United States. On the day appointed for the drafting, the names of all previously enrolled in a certain district, each written on a separate ballot, were placed in a wheel, from which a person blindfolded drew a number of names equal to the quota of the district. Persons drafted could be excused from service on the production of a substitute or the payment of \$300.

No sooner had the war fairly commenced than it became evident that Pennsylvania would be invaded. The first opportunity came to the enemy in the fall of 1862. On the 10th of October, General J. E. B. ("Jeb") Stuart made a cavalry raid through Franklin county. His troops rode into Chambersburg in the evening, cut off telegraphic communications, ransacked the stores, and terrified the inhabitants all night with the tramp of horses and the rattling of sabers. The next morning they made a raid on a warehouse containing military stores. What they could not pack on their horses, of which 1,200 had been taken on the raid through the county, they destroyed by setting fire to the building. The flames spread to the depot of the railroad and consumed it, too. The raiders then beat a hasty retreat to

Drafts and
Substitutes

Stuart's Raid

the Potomac, and thence to Virginia, after causing a loss of about \$150,000. Chambersburg was within a night's ride from the Confederate lines all through the war.

Pennsylvania was the land of promise to General

Lee and the army of northern Virginia.

Lee's Invasion

Its rich granaries, great coal-fields, and extensive factories of war supplies were tempting objects for capture and destruction. Lee's defeat at Antietam foiled the first attempt, but did not destroy the desire. His victory at Chancellorsville gave the opportunity to try again. In June, 1863, the border counties of the State, from one end of Mason and Dixon's Line to the other, were threatened with invasion. The Secretary of War, Stanton, telegraphed to Pittsburg that the gunshops of that city were to be destroyed. Immediately all the great iron plants were closed and the men were kept at work for two weeks, throwing up intrenchments. Though no attack was made as far west as the Monongahela valley, Confederate scouts visited McConnellsburg, Fulton county, and Mt. Union, Huntingdon county. On Monday morning, June 15, a detachment of Lee's army, Jenkins' cavalry, entered Greencastle, and in the evening the streets of Chambersburg again resounded with the clatter of Southern troopers. After scouring Franklin and Fulton counties for horses and provisions, the force proceeded to Shippensburg and thence to Carlisle, regaling themselves and baiting their steeds at the expense of the public authorities. Next came General Ewell with the vanguard of Lee's entire army. He arrived at Carlisle on the 27th of June, a few hours after Jenkins. Ewell made a requisition for a large amount of supplies, including even qui-

nine and chloroform. His force remained at Carlisle until the night of the 30th. They destroyed the railroad bridge, threatened Harrisburg by making raids in that direction to within a few miles of the city, and caused vast numbers of the population of the Cumberland valley to flee across the Susquehanna, with horses, cattle, and movable things of every description.

At Harrisburg there was great consternation. Earthworks and other defenses, known as Fort Washington, were erected on the west side of the river. Governor Curtin, on the 26th, hearing of the approach of the invaders, called for 60,000 men to defend the State. Even the veterans of the war of 1812 tendered their services, so great was the necessity of the hour. General W. F. Smith, who was put in command of the volunteers, marched into Carlisle as Ewell marched out. Scarcely had Smith encamped, when a body of Confederate cavalry reappeared, and, after firing, demanded the surrender of the town. This was refused. Then the town was shelled and set on fire; but the Confederates were needed elsewhere—the battle of Gettysburg had begun.

Early's division of Ewell's corps was sent in advance of Lee's army in the direction of Gettysburg, by way of Cashtown. At the latter place, this force was divided, Gordon's brigade taking temporary possession of Gettysburg on the 26th, while Early himself proceeded to York, and occupied that town the next day. As soon as York had learned of the approach of the Confederates, the small body of troops stationed there fell

Great
Consternation

The Bridge
at Wrightsville
Burned

back to Wrightsville. Here a slight skirmish occurred; but the bridge having been set on fire by the citizens of the town, the enemy could go no farther. At a public meeting, the people of York, on demand of General Early, contributed goods and money to the amount of \$35,000. No damage was done to private property; but the railroad suffered some loss.

The most important side-skirmish connected with the battle of Gettysburg was the cavalry engagement at Hanover, York county, between General Kirkpatrick and General Stuart. The latter had not crossed the Potomac with Lee, and his whereabouts were unknown. On June 30, while General Kirkpatrick's troopers, dismounted in the streets, were eating a luncheon served by the people of Hanover, Stuart suddenly attacked the rear and threw it into confusion. Moving out into the open country, the Union cavalry formed in line of battle and, after fighting until dark, drove the enemy from their position.

The attempts to secure the bridges at Harrisburg and Wrightsville having failed, it became evident that a battle would have to be fought on the west side of the Susquehanna. So when Lee halted on the diamond at Chambersburg, he turned his tired horse to the right and rode towards Gettysburg instead of Harrisburg. Meade's army had been marching northward, to the east of Lee's, in the general direction of Harrisburg. General Reynolds, second to Meade in command, was on the extreme left with the 1st Corps, closely watching the movements of the enemy. At Gettysburg, July 1, he met

the advance forces, under General Hill, as they were about to enter the town. And now the great battle was on. But it had scarcely begun when the Union army suffered its greatest loss. While General Reynolds was riding forward to select ground for a line of battle, he fell, pierced through the head by a ball from a sharpshooter's rifle. Doubleday, who succeeded him, fought desperately on Seminary Ridge till the hot July sun stood at high noon. General Howard then came up with the 11th Corps. The enemy charged upon him with a tremendous force, threatening to overlap both flanks. He ordered a retreat, and the two bleeding and exhausted corps fled through the streets of Gettysburg to Cemetery Hill. When Meade, who was still some fifteen miles away, and did not arrive till late at night, heard of the death of Reynolds, he ordered General Hancock to leave the 2d Corps and hasten to Gettysburg to assume command of the forces already there. The Union army—100,000 strong—now came up, one corps after another, and during the night took position (in the form of a fish-hook) on Cemetery Ridge as far back as Round Top on the left and Culp's Hill on the right. Lee's line, similar in form, but much longer, was along Seminary Ridge. His army numbered about 80,000.



Reynolds' Monument, on
Seminary Ridge.

The second day, until 3 o'clock, was spent by both armies in removing fences, digging rifle-pits, building stone defenses, strengthening weak points, distributing ammunition, and providing hospitals. About 4 o'clock Lee opened fire on

The Second Day



Meade's Statue.
In Fairmount Park, Philadelphia.

Meade's left. General Sickles was in command there, with the 3d Corps, and by some mistake had taken an isolated position. Instantly both lines in that quarter were a blaze of artillery and musketry. Longstreet's Confederate corps came on like the resistless tide. The Union troops wavered and fell back. Sickles was wounded and carried off the field. Humphreys lost 2,000 of his 5,000 men in getting back to the position intended to be oc-

cupied in the first place. A division of reinforcements sent over from Hancock's corps lost two brigadiers—Zook and Cross. But there was a natural stronghold near by—Little Round Top. By the foresight of General Warren, this was saved to the Union forces, but the blood shed at this point, which included the famous Devil's Den, was most appalling. Had Longstreet taken Round Top, the assaults on the lines next to Cemetery Hill could not have been with-

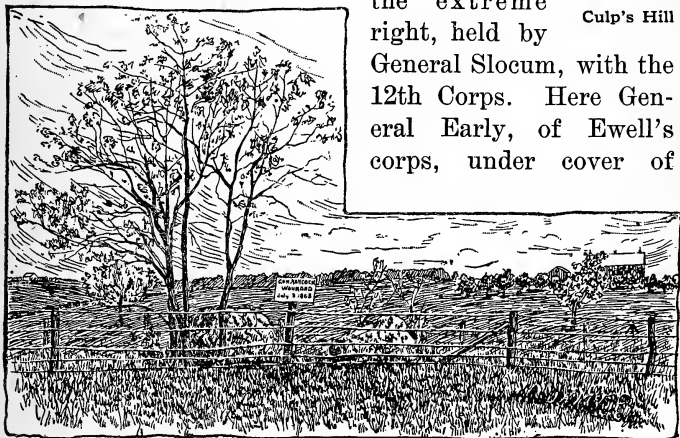
stood. As it was, the action there soon ended; but not before Hancock and the general next in command of the 2d Corps were both wounded.

Just as the curtain of night was falling upon the scene of carnage on the left, General Ewell attacked Cemetery Hill, held by Howard's corps. It was here where the Louisiana Tigers made their famous assault. Those desperate fighters came up to the very mouths of the cannon and actually spiked two of the Union guns. At this critical moment a brigade of German troops fell upon the victorious Tigers, and in a hand-to-hand charge drove them down the hillside. It was the Waterloo of the Tigers.

The Louisiana
Tigers

Lee had now attacked the whole Union line except the extreme right, held by General Slocum, with the 12th Corps. Here General Early, of Ewell's corps, under cover of

Culp's Hill



Where Hancock was wounded.

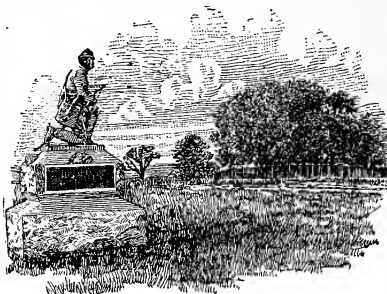
darkness and timber, began a vigorous attack on Culp's Hill and points beyond, but was bravely

repulsed. However, there was a gap in the Union line, caused by the withdrawal of General Geary to the support of Round Top. Taking advantage of this, the enemy broke through and got within a third of a mile of Meade's headquarters.

The break made in Geary's division the evening before naturally caused the battle to be renewed in that quarter early in the morning of the third day. Geary, having returned, opened a furious cannonade to dislodge the intruders. Ewell, who had been reinforced by parts of Longstreet's and Hill's corps during the night, responded with fatal effect all along the line of Slocum, even to Cemetery Hill; but it was solid now and well defended. In front of Geary's command, the slain were lying in heaps. At 10 o'clock Ewell fell back, and the battle of Gettysburg on the right ended.

Then there was a pause of three hours—an ominous silence, such as sometimes goes before a crash of thunder. Lee was massing his artillery of 115 guns opposite Cemetery Hill. Meade saw what was proposed to be done, and prepared for it. At 1 o'clock the signal gun was fired on Seminary Ridge. For two hours an artillery duel raged such as had never shaken the atmosphere of either continent. Trees, rocks, and tombstones were shattered—horses and men were mangled—guns, swords, and cannon were dyed in blood. When it ceased, Pickett's brave Virginians, who had just reached the battle-field, made their famous charge upon the Union center. Nothing in history surpasses it in heroism and sacrifice. When they neared the coveted hill, seventy iron throats poured grape,

shell, and canister upon them. Yet on they went, even to the cannon's mouth, and for one brief moment a Confederate flag waved over the Union guns. But Hancock's infantry quickly advanced and recovered the lost ground. The raw troops with whom Pettigrew was to support the charge gave way at the same moment, and Pickett was left alone to contend with the Union forces



High Water Mark of the Civil War.

now pressing him on every side. The usual sequel of retreat did not follow. Pickett's charge ended in almost total destruction. The field on which he fought had been mown with the scythe of Death.

During the time of this last and supreme effort of Lee, there was a general movement against Meade's army all along the line; but it was of little consequence elsewhere. On the left, in front of Little Round Top, the Pennsylvania Reserves drove back Hood and McLaws, capturing 5,000 stand of arms and taking 300 prisoners. On the right, General Gregg gained a decisive victory over Stuart in a cavalry engagement. The following morning Lee was on the retreat to the Potomac; but that day and the next were employed by Meade "in succoring the wounded and burying the dead." Governor Curtin soon afterwards proposed to the Governors of the different States whose regiments took part in the battle, that a cemetery be purchased for the final

The Reserves
and Gregg's
Cavalry

burial of the Union dead. The grounds embraced in this cemetery were at first owned by this State, and the expenses of maintaining them borne by the several States interested. The cemetery was dedicated November 19, 1863, as Abraham Lincoln said on that occasion, to be "a final resting place for those who here gave their lives that the nation might live." In 1872 the United States government succeeded to the ownership and management. The entire battlefield is now the property of the nation, and the position of every military organization which fought upon the field has been marked by monuments, not to decay by the touch of Time. And Gettysburg will be the Mecca of patriots as long as our fair land endures.

In 1864, the Confederates once more made a raid into Pennsylvania, and burned Chambersburg. They appeared outside of the town on the evening of the 29th of July, but were delayed in their entrance until daylight of the 30th. They planted two batteries and fired a few shots before the whole column of 3,000 entered. Soon after the occupation, McCausland, the commander, demanded \$500,000 in greenbacks or \$100,000 in gold, to be paid within half an hour. On refusal, the town was to be burned. He was told that "Chambersburg *could* not and *would* not pay any ransom." Then he had the court-house bell rung for a public meeting; but no one attended. Arrests of prominent citizens were next ordered, and threats were made to carry them to Richmond if they did not pay the ransom. When all this proved to no purpose, he set the town on fire. In a few hours \$3,000,000 worth of property was destroyed, 3,000 people were left homeless and

many of them penniless, and for miles around the country was crowded with terror-stricken refugees. Chambersburg was the only town totally destroyed, within the limits of the Union States.

At the close of the war, Governor Curtin, in a special message to the Legislature, said that "the resources of Pennsylvania, Pennsylvania's
Battle Flags whether in men or money, have neither been withheld nor squandered." The State furnished, all told, 270 regiments and several unattached companies, numbering 387,284 men. Every regiment was supplied with a battle-flag, emblazoned with the number of the regiment and the coat-of-arms of the Commonwealth. The Reserves and other early regiments were provided with flags bearing additional inscriptions of battles of the Revolution, the war of 1812, and the Mexican war, participated in by Pennsylvania regiments of the same number. These flags were presented by Governor Curtin in person. Most of them have since been returned to the State, some tattered and torn and stained with blood. They constitute an interesting relic, and are preserved in the Executive Building of the Capitol at Harrisburg.

When the Pennsylvania regiments were drawn up to receive their battle-flags, Governor Curtin always pledged the State to sus- The Soldiers'
Orphans tain, clothe and educate the children of those who had families. So when, in 1863, Colonel Thomas A. Scott, on behalf of the Pennsylvania Railroad Company, donated \$50,000 for bounties to volunteers, it was decided to use that fund in another way; namely, to establish schools for soldiers' orphans. A number of schools willing to take pupils were

selected in various parts of the State, and by 1865 266 soldiers' orphans were enrolled in them. Through this measure, Pennsylvania erected a monument to her soldiers that is more enduring than the granite columns that have been raised on the battlefields.



John W. Geary.

At the election for a successor to the great "War Governor," John W. Geary, the Republican candidate, received a majority of 17,000 votes over Hiester Clymer, the Democratic candidate. Geary was Governor for two terms—from 1867 to 1873. The whole country, but more especially the North, prospered greatly after the war. Pennsylvania, with its vast material resources, enjoyed unusual business activity. However, there was one section in the State to which the ravages of the war were a decided drawback. It embraced the so-called "border counties"—York, Adams, Cumberland, Franklin, Fulton, Bedford, and Perry. These suffered greatly on account of the depredations that had been committed in the course of the various invasions. When the Legislature was appealed to for aid, it passed an act in 1868 by which the claims for damages were satisfied in some degree. The national government has likewise made reparation for many losses, and is still appealed to for the settlement of others.

Aside from "the saw-dust war,"—a disturbance in
 Governor Williamsport, in 1871, requiring the pres-
 Hartranft ence of the military,—the Commonwealth
 enjoyed peace and tranquillity until 1872. That
 year the Liberal Republicans (see any U. S. his-
 tory) nominated Horace Greeley, editor of the New

York *Tribune*, against President Grant, who was the regular Republican candidate for a second term. The Democrats had practically no candidate, but indorsed Greeley. The canvass throughout the country was marked by intense partisan feeling which affected the campaign for Governor. The Republican nominee was General John F. Hartranft; the Democratic, Charles R. Buckalew. A number of prominent Republicans in Pennsylvania joined the ranks of the Liberals and supported Buckalew for Governor. After a great political battle, Hartranft was elected. At this election, the Prohibitionists for the first time presented a candidate—S. B. Chase—for Governor. He received 1,259 votes.



John F. Hartranft.

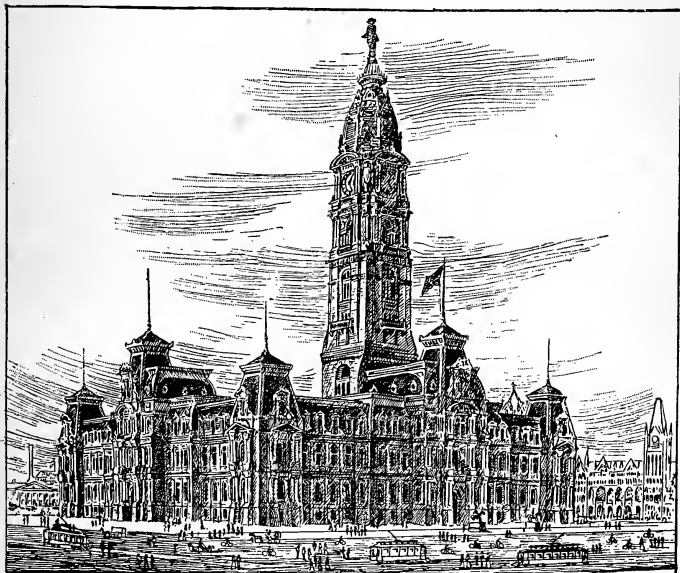
The great financial crisis of 1873 marked the end of the prosperous times that followed the war. It was precipitated upon the country from Philadelphia, by the failure of Jay Cooke & Co., who were forced to close the doors of their banking-house on the 18th of September. Before night, "runs" were made on the other banks of the city, and in a few days a number of them had to suspend. These failures began the long train of business and labor difficulties that made the next few years so dark to trade and industry. Early the next year a railroad strike occurred at Susquehanna, because the New York and Erie road did not make monthly payments promptly. Troops had to be sent by the Governor to restore order. About this time, too, disturbances in the coal regions began to be serious.

The Financial
Crisis of 1873

The first strike of any consequence occurred in the anthracite section in 1868, for an eight-hour day. It was not successful, but it resulted in a compact organization of the miners. In 1871, the State militia had to be sent to Scranton on account of a strike against reduction of wages. It was settled by arbitration,—the first noteworthy example of this mode of settlement in the United States. Other strikes of minor importance occurred; but on January 1, 1875, the miners of the Lehigh and Schuylkill regions went out on what became known as the "long strike." It lasted until July, and ended in the unconditional surrender of the miners. It was generally peaceable; but at one time the Governor had to send the militia to quell disorder.

On July 4, 1874, ground was broken in Philadelphia for the Centennial Exhibition buildings, and the corner-stone of the City Hall was laid. The latter is the largest public building in America, built of white marble, in the renaissance style. The main tower, 547 feet high, surmounted by a statue of William Penn, 36 feet high and facing northeast in the direction of the famous elm, is the highest in the world. The building contains some 500 rooms, and has a floor area of $14\frac{1}{2}$ acres. It has already cost about \$22,000,000, and is not completed. The Centennial Exhibition, which was to commemorate the Declaration of Independence, had made such progress by July 4, 1875, that the colossal figure of Columbia, on Memorial Hall, was unveiled on that day. For Memorial Hall, the State and Philadelphia appropriated the money; otherwise the Centennial was an

enterprise of the whole country. About 180 buildings were erected on the grounds. The five great buildings were the Main Exhibition Building, Machinery Hall, Memorial Hall, Agricultural Hall and Horticultural Hall.



City Hall, Philadelphia.

tural Hall. The States of the Union each had a building; and so had the United States, the foreign governments and some enterprising individuals. The four great days were the opening day, May 10; Independence Day, July 4; Pennsylvania Day, September 28; and closing day, November 10. The Fourth of July had brought to Philadelphia a large number of people from all over the United States; but Pennsylvania Day was the most memorable to this State; for on

that day 275,000 of its people surged through the grounds of the Exhibition. The highest attendance before that had been 99,000. The closing day oc-



The Centennial Exhibition.

curred under the gloom of a bitter Presidential contest in the United States, and, excepting the magnificent pyrotechnic display in the evening, was uneventful. President Grant gave the signal for closing the Exhibition, and instantly the great Corliss engine in Machinery Hall ceased to move.

The year 1877 is noted for the most extensive
The Railroad Riots and destructive riots that ever broke out in Pennsylvania. They grew out of the great railroad strike inaugurated throughout the United States on the 14th of July. At Pittsburg some two thousand freight cars were destroyed, many railroad buildings laid in ashes, and miles of tracks torn up. The sheriff was helpless against the lawless mob who took advantage of the strike and engaged in plunder and destruction. Governor Hartranft was en route on a visit to the Pacific coast, and had to return. On the 22d of July, before reaching home,

he telegraphed an order calling out the National Guard. But the armed mob was not to be dispersed by the State troops, and United States troops had to be brought upon the scene before quiet could be restored. The disturbance at Pittsburg was the signal for disorder at other points. At Philadelphia and Harrisburg it was nipped in the bud. At Reading the railroad bridge across the Schuylkill was burned, and the National Guard came into fatal collision with a body of strikers in the streets. A company of United States troops were encamped there until late in the fall. At Scranton and Wilkes-Barre passenger trains were fired at as they passed through, and the tracks greased to stop them. In this section the miners, too, went on a strike, but the military prevented any destruction of property such as characterized the strike at Reading and Pittsburg.

At the election for Governor in 1878 there were four candidates—Henry M. Hoyt, Republican; Andrew H. Dill, Democrat; Samuel R. Mason, Greenback; and Franklin H. Lane, Prohibition. The Republican candidate was elected. In January, 1879, the first Legislature holding a biennial session met. The industries were still suffering from hard times, but there were signs of returning prosperity present. Governor Hoyt, in his inaugural, reminded the people that they spent more than they earned, that the extravagance of the rich is not the gain of the poor, that waste and profusion are not for the good of trade. Then, too, frequent assassinations and

Governor Hoyt



Henry M. Hoyt.

other outrages were committed on justices, constables and mining bosses in the anthracite regions. To expose these lawless deeds and bring the criminals to justice, detectives had to be employed. Plots and counter-plots were laid and a feeling of great uneasiness prevailed. Governor Hartranft, in his last message, advocated arbitration and conciliation as a better policy than repression to restore tranquillity. The State had paid annually for eight years \$100,000 for the suppression of labor troubles.

The Legislature of 1879 ordered an investigation of two sham medical colleges in Philadelphia, which sold diplomas to applicants without a knowledge of medicine. It authorized another penitentiary, which two years later became the Huntingdon Reformatory. It reorganized the National Guard, which was made to consist of 8,220 officers and enlisted men in a single division—three brigades, three batteries of artillery, the battalion of State Fencibles, and two independent companies.

In 1881, an effort was made by the Legislature to have the remains of William Penn removed from the graveyard at Jordan's meeting-house, in Buckinghamshire, England, and interred in Philadelphia. The heirs of Penn objected; but the absence of his bones did not mar the bi-centennial celebration of his arrival in the good ship *Welcome*. The affair was begun at Chester, on Monday, October 23, 1882. Some characters representing William Penn and his colonists landed at the foot of Penn street, where they were received by Lieutenant Markham and a group of Quakers, Swedes

and Indians, appropriately costumed. At midnight two hundred strokes of the State House bell announced the beginning of "landing day" in Philadelphia. Fully 500,000 strangers were in the city to see the Welcome come up the Delaware, about 9 o'clock in the morning. The landing was made at the foot of Dock street, according to tradition. A procession was formed, and at the grand stand Governor Hoyt greeted Penn and his suite. The founder then made an address, to which Sachem Tam-anend, of the Delawares, made a reply. The procession, which included more than 20,000 men in line, and required four and a half hours in passing, was very unique. It showed the gradual progress made during the two centuries of the State's existence. The festivities continued until Friday.

At the election in 1882, there were five candidates for Governor; viz., Robert E. Pattison, Democrat; James A. Beaver, Republican; John Stewart, Independent Republican; Thomas A. Armstrong, Greenback - Labor; and Alfred C. Pettit, Prohibition. As Governor Hoyt said in his last message, "the people determined upon a change," for the Democratic candidate was elected. Following the example of President Jefferson, Mr. Pattison would not ride in a carriage from the depot at Harrisburg, but walked to the hotel at the time of his inauguration. In his messages, too, he advocated economy in the public service, recommending various reforms intended to lessen expenses.



Robert E. Pattison.

On the day fixed by the Legislature for adjournment, June 6, 1883, the Governor called an extra session to meet the following day. The object was to redistrict the State into senatorial and representative districts, in obedience to the Constitution, Article II., section 18; also to make a new apportionment in congressional and judicial districts. The Legislature had failed to do this work at the regular session, because the two houses, being of different political complexion, could not agree. The extra session continued until December 6. Bills were introduced to meet the purpose of the call; but only the one rearranging the judicial districts became a law. The others failed on account of political disagreements. The expense incurred was heavy and caused much dissatisfaction. The members were paid ten dollars per diem. To avoid a recurrence of so great an expense through an extra session, the law was changed in 1885. The compensation for both the regular and extra sessions now is a fixed amount, —\$1,500 for the regular and \$500 for the extra, regardless of the length. Other important legislation at the session of 1885 was creating corporations for the production, conveyance and distribution of natural gas; requesting the Governor to designate a day as Arbor Day; and requiring in the common schools the study of physiology and hygiene, with special reference to the effects of alcoholic drinks, stimulants and narcotics.

The question of temperance received attention in other directions also about this time. As early as 1872, Pennsylvania put a local option law upon the statute books, but it

was repealed soon afterwards. With the sudden growth of the Prohibition party in the Presidential campaign of 1884, there came a demand for legislation to restrict, and even to prohibit, the liquor traffic. There were at the time 7,000 licensed drinking places in Philadelphia alone. In obedience to a loud call from all over the State, the Legislature in 1887 passed the so-called "high license" bill, which fixed the fees for the right to sell liquor at retail as high as \$500 and \$300 in cities, and proportionately high in boroughs and townships. At the same time, an amendment to the Constitution, prohibiting the manufacture and sale of intoxicating liquor as a beverage, was proposed. This proposition having been agreed to also by the next Legislature, an election was held June 18, 1889, for the purpose of ratifying or rejecting the amendment. A very spirited campaign ensued; but the amendment was lost by a vote of 484,644 to 296,617, the vote by counties being 39 against it and 28 for it. Later on, the "high license" act was amended so as to increase the amount in cities of first and second class.

At the election for Governor in 1886 there were four candidates, as follows: James A. Beaver, Republican; Chauncey F. Black, Democrat; Charles S. Wolf, Prohibition; and Robert J. Houston, Greenback. The Republican candidate was successful. The Legislature in 1887 did what it had been asked to do by Governor Pattison when he called the extra session in 1883. The State was apportioned into twenty-eight congressional districts, and representative districts were provided for 204 members of the House. At this session, too,

The State
Assumes
New Duties

the appropriation for common schools was increased from \$1,000,000 to \$1,500,000; the dissemination of vile literature was declared to be a misdemeanor; the "eastern standard" time was made the standard



James A. Beaver.

throughout the Commonwealth; the culture of trees was encouraged and their wilful destruction prohibited; and hospitals were established for persons injured in the coal fields. It is seen from the nature of these laws that the State assumed new duties and responsibilities about this time, doing things that used to be done

by the people in their private capacity or were not done at all. The employment of women and children in factories was regulated and provision made for their safety, while the fish in the streams and the game in the forest were protected against ruthless destruction.

Another example of the
The Johnstown growing interest
Flood of the State in

its people was furnished by the floods of 1889. On May 31 the regions of the West Branch of the Susquehanna, the Juniata, and Conemaugh rivers were visited by floods which had no parallel in history. Many villages, towns and cities on the eastern slope of the Alleghanies were, for a time, rendered utterly helpless. On the western



John Baker.

slope, Johnstown and its neighboring towns were almost obliterated. Three thousand lives were lost in the Conemaugh valley, more quickly than the story of the disaster can be told. The cause of this terrible loss



The Pennsylvania Railroad Bridge and the Wreckage above It.

of life was the breaking of a dam covering 600 acres of land and calculated to hold 500,000,000 cubic feet of water. It was situated on the South Fork, two miles south of the junction with the Conemaugh and ten miles east of Johnstown. On the afternoon of May 31 it rose slowly until it poured over the top. Then some old leakages became larger, the breast broke, and the water rushed forth like a demon. John Baker, the Paul Revere of the occasion, rode a race with it for a while and saved many people; but the death-dealing wave, now laden with trees, houses, wreckage and human beings, defied steam whistles and telegraphic instruments. It ploughed through South Fork, Mineral Point, Franklin, East Conemaugh, Woodvale, Conemaugh, Johnstown, Kernville, Mill-

ville, and Cambria. It was late in the afternoon, and the night that followed was one of unutterable agony. Morning dawned upon a scene that beggared description; and when the people learned what had happened at Johnstown, they extended aid and sympathy as unparalleled as the catastrophe itself. Relief committees were organized in Philadelphia and Pittsburg to furnish aid and to help bury the dead. Governor Beaver appointed a Flood Relief Commission to distribute a fund that had swelled to more than \$1,000,000. The State Board of Health was early on the ground to enforce the sanitary laws, and the military came there to preserve order. To pay the State's expenses, generous men of means advanced the money till the Legislature would reimburse them. There never was a more beautiful example of public and private charity in all history.

At the election for Governor in 1890, there were again four candidates: Robert E. Pattison, Democrat; George W. Delamater, Republican; John D. Gill, Prohibition; and T. P. Rynder, Labor. Mr. Pattison was elected for a second term. Under the Constitution of 1873, a person holding the office of Governor is not eligible for the next succeeding term. Probably the most important act of the Legislature of 1891 was the passage of the "Ballot Reform Law." The voter was not sufficiently free and independent in casting his ballot, and the cry for purer elections was heard all over the Commonwealth. The law passed is known as the Australian system, the nature of which is that it preserves to a man freedom and secrecy in the discharge of his duty as an elector.

The years 1891 and 1892 are memorable on account of great labor troubles. On the 2d of April, 1891, the sheriff of West-
moreland county telegraphed to the Governor that seven persons had been killed and twenty-one wounded at Moorewood, and that he was unable to suppress the disorder. Two regiments of the National Guard were sent there, and order was at once restored. The following year, on July 6, the sheriff of Allegheny county telegraphed to Harrisburg that a collision with fatal results had occurred at Homestead between striking workingmen and armed deputies and watchmen, and that he was unable to cope with the rioters. The cause of the strike was that the Carnegie Steel Company attempted to reduce the wages of some of its employes, who numbered about 4,000 men. Those who refused to accept the new scale of wages were locked out, and then the trouble began. One act followed another until the men locked out had practical possession of the works. The company now brought a force of Pinkerton detectives from Chicago to protect its own property. When these arrived in barges from Pittsburg, they were attacked as they attempted to land and a serious riot ensued, in which the Pinkertons got the worst. About a dozen lives were lost and scores of persons were wounded. When the National Guard arrived, the town was well-nigh under the reign of mob law; but a two-weeks' presence of the Second and Third Brigades restored order. The Homestead riot and other labor troubles caused much agitation in and out of the Legislature for several years in favor of a board of arbitration to settle all labor difficulties in the State.

At the World's Columbian Exposition at Chicago, in 1893, the Legislature spent \$300,000 to show the products of farm and factory, mine and mill, art and education, and all the best results of the State's material prosperity. The Pennsylvania State Building, with its facsimile State House tower, and its old Liberty Bell in the main entrance, was a favorite spot at the World's Fair. In the same year a beautiful building was erected at Harrisburg, to be used by the Executive Department and the State Library. It cost half a million dollars, and was made fireproof to preserve the official records, documents and books. The Library contains about 100,000 volumes and is, with a single exception, the most valuable State library in the country.

At the election for Governor in 1894, there were five candidates, as follows: Daniel H. Hastings, Republican; William M. Singerly, Democrat; Charles I. Hawley, Prohibition; Jerome T. Allman, People's; and Thomas H. Grundy, Socialist-Labor. Hastings' majority was with-



Daniel H. Hastings.

out a parallel in the history of gubernatorial elections. The Legislature of 1895 made a very marked expansion in the public service. It created a number of new departments and offices. The agricultural department, with its kindred industries of dairy and food supplies, horticulture and forestry, was established in the interests of farmers. A banking department was created to execute the laws of banking and financial institutions

in general. A new court of seven judges—the Superior Court—was established to lessen the work of the Supreme Court.

On Tuesday, February 2, 1897, the clock in the tower of the State Capitol struck twelve o'clock noon as usual; but when it struck again, it tolled its own death-knell, for at

The Capitol
Destroyed
by Fire

1 o'clock the fire that destroyed the historic building on that day had already encircled the dome like a hydra-headed serpent; and the old clock and all that was dear about Pennsylvania's capitol was doomed to be no more. Many books and records that could not be replaced were destroyed. The old building had an interesting history. It had witnessed the inauguration of sixteen Governors; Presidents Harrison, Tyler, Taylor, Lincoln, Grant and Hayes had been within its walls, and Webster entranced an audience in it with his eloquence. Lafayette was tendered a public reception in the old Senate chamber, and in 1860 a similar honor was accorded to the Prince of Wales. The Legislature, after the fire, resumed its sessions in Grace Methodist Episcopal Church, of Harrisburg. A new Capitol building was authorized to be erected, fire-proof and of the renaissance style of architecture, the cost not to exceed \$550,000. Work was begun in the summer of 1898, the cornerstone was laid on the 10th of August, and the building was occupied by the Legislature January 3, 1899.

Extensive strikes again broke out in the coal regions in the summer of 1897. In the bituminous fields of western Pennsylvania one was in progress from July 4 to September 11, having been a part of a general movement extending

Extensive
Strikes

over West Virginia, Ohio, Indiana and Illinois. In the main it was peaceable. A new method of restraining the strikers was put into effect; namely, the courts granted injunctions enjoining the strikers from assembling in the paths and roads upon the property of the mining companies, and from interfering with such employes as desired to work. Scarcely had the bituminous strike ended when one broke out in the anthracite region. The miners wanted higher wages, and tried to stop the collieries by inducing other miners not to work. On September 10 the sheriff of Luzerne county, with about a hundred deputies, met a body of strikers—mostly Hungarians, Poles, Lithuanians, and Slavs—who were marching to a colliery at Lattimer to persuade others to join them. Considering such a demonstration unlawful, he ordered them to disperse. Some tried to force their way past him. In an instant the deputies fired into the miners, killing some twenty and wounding about fifty others. Three thousand troops of the National Guard were soon tented about Hazleton, and no further violence occurred. The sheriff and his deputies were arraigned for murder, but they were acquitted on the ground that they had not overstepped the bounds of reason in trying to preserve order.

On the 21st of April, 1898, the United States, after
The Spanish War thirty-three years of peace, became involved in a war with Spain. Two days later, President McKinley called for 125,000 volunteers. Pennsylvania's quota was 10,762. Governor Hastings ordered the National Guard—9,222 men—to mobilize at Mount Gretna, where they, and others needed to fill up the quota, were sworn into the service of the

United States for two years unless sooner discharged. About a month later a call for 75,000 more volunteers was made, and Pennsylvania furnished 6,462 additional men. The Tenth regiment was sent to Manila, and took part in a number of engagements during the year's service in the Philippines. The Sixteenth, the Fourth, and the cavalry and artillery were sent to Porto Rico. The Sixteenth was engaged at the capture of Coamo. The other Pennsylvania regiments, though equally anxious to fight, had to content themselves with camp duty in the United States.

At the election for Governor in 1898, there were four candidates: William A. Stone, Republican; George A. Jenks, Democrat; Silas C. Swallow, Prohibitionist, People's, Liberty and Honest Government; and J. Mahlon Barnes, Socialist-Labor. The Republican candidate was elected; and his administration began January 17, 1899.



William A. Stone.

BOOKS FOR READING AND CONSULTATION

Fisher's *Pennsylvania Colony and Commonwealth*, *passim*; Egle's *History of Pennsylvania*, pp. 45-276; Scharf and Westcott's *History of Philadelphia*, Vol. I; Proud's *History of Pennsylvania*; Gordon's *History of Pennsylvania*; Armor's *Lives of the Governors of Pennsylvania*; Carpenter and Arthur's *History of Pennsylvania*; McMaster and Stone's *Pennsylvania and the Federal Constitution*; *Colonial Records and Pennsylvania Archives*; *Votes and Minutes of the Assembly, 1682-1790*; *The Governors' Messages in the House and Senate Journals, 1790-1898*; *Statutes at Large of Pennsylvania*; Pepper and Lewis' *Digest of the Laws of Pennsylvania*.

CHAPTER VI

THE INDUSTRIAL HISTORY

Commerce and
Agriculture
before 1775

Before the Revolutionary war, Pennsylvania's chief industries were agriculture and commerce. Like the other colonies in America, the province was prohibited by Great Britain from engaging in manufacturing. Sawmills and grist mills were numerous along the creeks, for the settlers had to have lumber for dwellings, and flour for bread ; but other manufactures were confined to a few simple articles for home consumption.

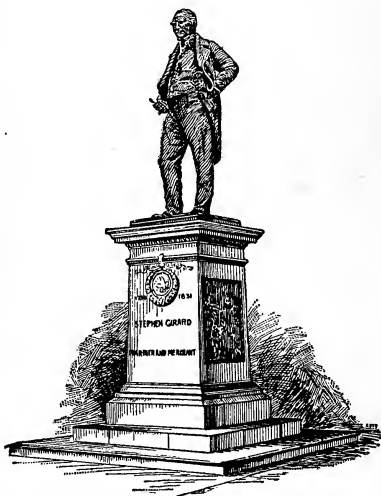
The first articles of trade were furs, skins, and tobacco, obtained from the Indians. This primitive commerce increased rapidly in variety and quantity. In 1731, the exports were wheat, flour, biscuit, beef, pork, butter, cheese, cider, apples, soap, candles, starch, hair-powder, leather, wax, beer, linseed oil, peltry, hemp, lumber and drugs (sassafras, calamus, aromatics, snakeroot, etc.).

A number of ships were built each year for sale, over and above what were employed by the merchants. Great quantities of corn were sent to Portugal and Spain, the Canaries and the Azores, and frequently ship and cargo were sold. The proceeds were invested in England for manufactures needed in the province. An extensive trade sprang up with the West Indies, especially with the French and Dutch islands. What was not sold for cash was exchanged

for rum, sugar and molasses. All the ports of the other English colonies, from New Hampshire to the Carolinas, were visited by ships from Philadelphia; and Newfoundland fish were carried in Pennsylvania bottoms to Mediterranean and Caribbean ports.

In 1740, the population of Pennsylvania had equaled and exceeded that of all the other colonies, except Maryland, Massachusetts, and Virginia. Ten years later, Maryland was passed in the race; after the Revolution, Massachusetts; and Virginia had to give up its place as second in the Union to Pennsylvania in 1830; while for nearly a hundred years after 1750, Philadelphia was the metropolis of America. When it is remembered that Pennsylvania is next to the youngest of the thirteen original colonies, its rank as second in population and wealth, attained so early in its history, and kept to the present time, is a matter of just pride. The

Rank in
Population



Stephen Girard, City Hall, Philadelphia.

commercial transactions of the province produced the greatest financiers of America. Robert Morris was the financier of the Revolution, and even before that time, he, with a few others, had established a credit in Europe, which was used for banking purposes

among commercial men. The need of a bank in Philadelphia had been felt by her merchants long before the first one in America was established there, in 1780. Stephen Girard amassed ten million dollars, and became the richest man in the United States.

The decline of commerce dates from the War of 1812. During the Napoleonic wars, Penn-
 Decline of Commerce sylvania, in common with all the colonies, enjoyed great commercial prosperity. Farm products were in great demand in Europe, and American vessels had to carry them because we were about the only neutral on the sea. But when England and France, by their orders and decrees against our ships and cargoes, made it necessary for Jefferson, in self-defense, to resort to embargo and non-intercourse, American commerce got a serious blow; and for some reason, Philadelphia never recovered from it. With the completion of the Erie canal in 1825, New York became the commercial emporium of the United States.

As long as Philadelphia was preëminent in commerce, her wealth made her the chief patron
 Commercial Prosperity and Letters of literature, science and art, in America. Andrew Bradford's "American Weekly Mercury" (1719), the third newspaper in the colonies, Christopher Saur's High German "Pennsylvania Historiographer" (1739), and Dr. Franklin's "General Magazine and Historical Chronicle" (1741), the first magazines, and John Dunlap's "American Daily Advertiser" (1784), the first daily paper, were the forerunners of the many books and periodicals that were to be sent forth from the Delaware. Two of the colonial newspapers, the "Pennsylvania Gazette" and the

"*Pennsylvania Journal*," were carried through the Revolutionary period, and, together with the "*Pennsylvania Packet*" (1771), exercised an incalculable influence in shaping the affairs of the new nation. Such men as Fenno, Bache and Duane made a lasting impression upon United States history, in that they helped to shape and fashion the political parties.

In the early part of the nineteenth century, such magazines as the "*Portfolio*" and "*Graham's*" filled the places now occupied by the "*North American*," "*Forum*," "*Century*," and others. Longfellow, Bryant, Cooper, Willis, Lowell, Poe and Morris—all made their debut in the old Philadelphia periodicals. In this literary atmosphere were brought forth the pioneer of American novelists,—Charles Brockden Brown,—the first American theater, the first medical school, the first law school and the first circulating library.

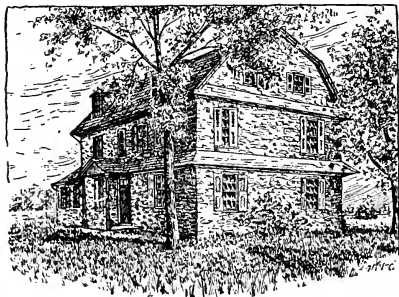
Science and art were likewise greatly encouraged. Franklin's discoveries had become known
in the remotest parts of the civilized world.

Science and Art

He induced Provost Smith and Tom Paine to come to Pennsylvania, and the great chemist, Dr. Priestly, found refuge here from his persecutors in England. David Rittenhouse, under Pennsylvania skies, became the greatest astronomer of his time; while the birds in Bartram's famous botanical garden on the Schuylkill made Alexander Wilson the celebrated ornithologist. Audubon, too, acquired much of his bird-lore in Pennsylvania, greatly to the neglect of his farm; and it was in Philadelphia that he resolved on the publication of his great work—"Birds of America." Of the museums then in the country, Peale's was

the greatest. No stranger failed to see his natural wonders and works of art in the State House. The famous paintings of more than a hundred statesmen and soldiers hanging in one room, and painted by Peale and his son Rembrandt, became the nucleus of the Pennsylvania Academy of Fine Arts, in 1806. The man to honor our State most in the fine arts was Benjamin West, though in later years a Hovender and a Rothermel added new glory to our achievements in that field.

As long as the people of Pennsylvania were engaged chiefly in agriculture and commerce, all the roads led to Philadelphia. These at first were mere "horse-ways," in which the pack-horse, followed by calves and sheep, carried the products of the farm in wallets, sacks and baskets. The things purchased



Birthplace of Benjamin West, Swarthmore,
Delaware County.

in town were carried back in the same way, only the load was much lighter; for the people needed their money to pay for their land. Later on, the pack-horses carried great quantities of merchandise into the interior to Carlisle, Shippens-

burg, Mercersburg, and even into the Monongahela valley. The iron made in the Juniata valley was at first carried to Philadelphia and Pittsburg in this way. Fifty or a hundred were frequently in one row, divided into sections of twelve or fifteen, with a man

at the end of each section. The first departure from this mode of transportation was the sled in winter ; and wagons came into use as roads were made. The Conestoga wagon was first used about 1760. These huge vehicles, drawn by six, eight or more horses,



Conestoga Team.

often had a capacity of four tons. Their covers were of linen, high at each end, and their wheels were broad, to keep them from sinking into the mire of the country roads.

The first turnpike in the United States was that between Philadelphia and Lancaster. The ^{The} Lancaster Pike road between these two places was the beginning of the chief highway to the West. It went through Chester and Lancaster counties, crossed the Susquehanna at Wright's Ferry, passed through York, Carlisle, Shippensburg and Bedford, thence across the Alleghenies to Pittsburg—the metropolis of the West after the Revolution. On this historic road thousands of emigrants traveled in the summer months to Pittsburg, where they fitted out for their new homes ; while long trains of wagons brought the produce of their farms to Philadelphia. The way was broad and level in the lowlands, but narrow and dangerous in

the mountains, and beset with steep declivities. Many inns were found along the route, and the villagers living about them did a thriving business; but—

“ To the merry wayside tavern
Comes the noisy throng no more ;
And the faded sign complaining,
Swings unnoticed at the door.”

—*Thomas Buchanan Read.*

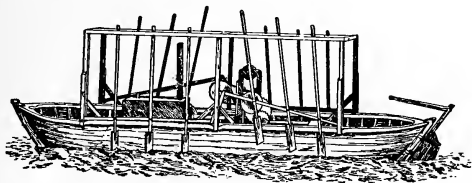
It was this transportation to and from the West that gave rise to the project of the Lancaster pike in 1792. When finished it was the wonder of America.

The Lancaster pike was the first important piece of work done in the line of internal
Other
Improvements improvements, which began to be made about 1790. The opening of the Northwest Territory for settlement made it necessary to carry out schemes that had been the dream of years, and turned the attention of capitalists from the sea to the land. All over the United States turnpikes, bridges and canals were projected. Hamilton's funding system (see any U. S. history), the United States Bank, the impost and the excise, all worked together for good times. In 1791 three canals were begun, one along the banks of the Brandywine, another between the Delaware and the Schuylkill, and still another between the Schuylkill and the Susquehanna. These were the beginnings of the great system of canals, connecting the valleys and streams, and binding together the different parts of the State, to an extent and at a cost unequalled by any similar works in America. The Lancaster pike was extended until in the year 1806 it reached Pittsburg. Around Philadelphia a perfect network of such

roads came into existence, and their substantial stone bridges were an object of admiration to the traveler in Pennsylvania.

Roads, bridges and canals were not the only means thought of at this time for the improvement of the interior. Long before Fulton, in 1807, made his trip to Albany in the famous *Clermont*, John Fitch had steamed up and down the Delaware between Philadelphia and Burlington, New Jersey.

Fitch's
Steamboat



Model of Fitch's Steamboat.

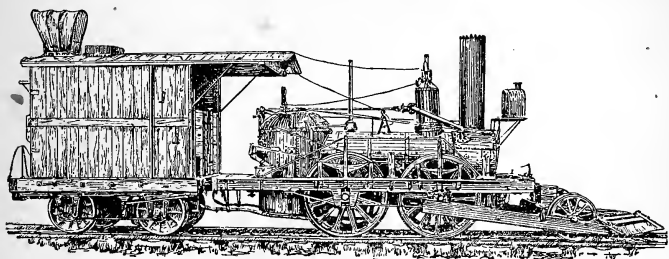
The idea of steam navigation had come to Fitch while at the village of Neshaminy, Bucks county, in 1785. He made a model and tried it in a stream. He formed a company in Philadelphia to furnish the capital needed. A German clockmaker of that city, Henry Voight, helped him to make the boiler and engine. After several trials on the Delaware, in the summer of 1786, the boat reached the rate of seven miles an hour. Then he built a larger one—forty-five feet long; and on August 22, 1787, in the presence of the members of the Constitutional Convention and a vast concourse of other spectators, he propelled it up and down the Delaware to the great astonishment of the multitude. About a year later, Fitch had so improved his steamboat that it began to make regular trips from Philadelphia to Burlington, going up one day

and returning the next. On Sundays it made return trips to Chester. A time-table, with rates of fare, appeared in the Philadelphia papers from June to September, for several years, but the competition of sailing packets and stage-coaches made the enterprise unprofitable and the trips were abandoned.

In 1804, Oliver Evans ran a paddle-wheel steamboat down the Schuylkill and up the Delaware as far as Dunk's Ferry (now Beverly, New Jersey) and back without accident or delay. But it remained for Robert Fulton to make a success of steam navigation, and no place in Pennsylvania profited more by his invention than Pittsburg. Before 1811, keel-boats, Kentucky flat-boats and Indian pirogues were the means of transportation down the Ohio. From St. Louis rude boats and rafts floated down the Mississippi to Natchez and New Orleans. But the current was too rapid for this kind of craft to return; and so they were rudely put together and sold for lumber at their destination. In 1810, to test Fulton's plan of navigation on this interior waterway, a boat 138 feet long, of some 300 tons burden, was built at Pittsburg. It was christened the New Orleans, and launched in 1811. The steamboat left for the Crescent City in December following. Others were constructed, and from that time on, Pittsburg built many river steamboats, and its trade with the Ohio and Mississippi valleys became immense.

Railroad building also dates back to the time of opening ways of transportation to the interior. Oliver Evans, as early as 1773, said he could apply his steam engine to propel carriages upon the land; and in 1782 he had succeeded in making

one. In 1805, he exhibited a land-carriage in public. In 1809, Thomas Leiper constructed a wooden railroad track from a stone quarry in Delaware county to a boat landing at Ridley, a distance of nearly a mile. This was the first railroad in America. The track consisted of oak rails laid on blocks eight feet apart, and a single horse drew the four wheeled carriage



John Bull Engine, 1831. Camden and Amboy Railroad.

having a weight of more than 10,000 pounds. The road was in operation for many years.

The next railway in Pennsylvania, built in 1827, and also operated by horse-power, was that leading from the coal mines at Mauch Chunk to the Lehigh river, a distance of 9 miles—6 miles longer than the one at Quincy, Mass., constructed the year before. Thus one experiment gave rise to another, and in 1829, the Delaware and Hudson Company tried the locomotive from their mines to Honesdale, the first actual and practical use of steam on an American railroad. The first railroad in Pennsylvania for passenger and freight traffic was the Germantown road. The first passenger train left Ninth and Green streets, Philadelphia, June 6, 1832, and was drawn by horses. On the 23d of November following, a locomotive

engine, "Old Ironsides," was put on the track, at a speed of 28 miles an hour.

The first railroad to the interior of the State was the Columbia Railroad, from Philadelphia to Columbia. The State undertook this work in connection with the building of the canals. In April, 1834, an excursion by members of the Legislature, Canal Commissioners, and others, left Harrisburg, being towed to Columbia, by a canal packet, and thence carried by rail to Lancaster, where they remained all night. The next morning they started for Philadelphia, the cars being drawn by horses, and reached the city in eight and a half hours, including stoppages. Before winter the road was in full operation. The cars



A Modern Compartment Car.

were owned and run by the proprietors of the old stage lines. Anybody could use the road by paying two cents a mile for each passenger, and \$4.92 for each car sent over it. It had a single track at first, with turn-outs here and there, and there were frequent fights for the right of way. In the summer of 1835, cars and boats ran from Philadelphia

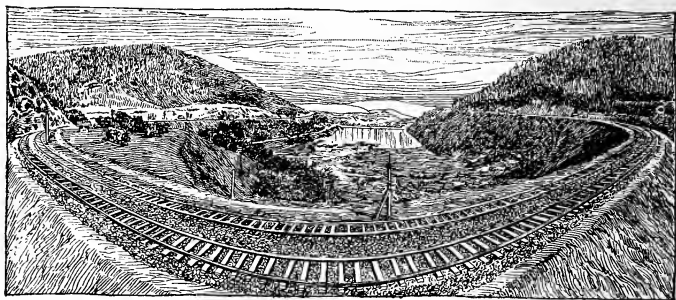
through to Pittsburg, partly by canal and portage railroad, in three and one-half days; but by that time the canal commissioners had procured locomotives and a new railroad from Lancaster to Harrisburg, via Mount Joy, had been built. The head of the canal navigation east of the Alleghenies was Hollidaysburg. Here the Portage Railroad, crossing the mountains by five inclined planes on each side, the cars drawn by stationary engines, connected with Johnstown. From the latter place the canal along the Conemaugh completed the route to Pittsburg. In 1834, an emigrant's boat from the North Branch



Old Portage Road.

of the Susquehanna passed over the inclined planes on trucks while the family was in it. It was launched again at Johnstown, reached Pittsburg, was run into the Ohio, floated down to Cairo, and was towed up the Mississippi to St. Louis. The route of transportation between Philadelphia and Pittsburg, with some deviations, has since become the main line of the Pennsylvania Railroad. With its numerous branches

in the State, and its lines outside, it connects New York, Philadelphia, Baltimore and Washington with Pittsburg, Erie, Cleveland, Toledo, Columbus, Cincin-



The Horseshoe Curve.

nati, Indianapolis, St. Louis and Chicago, as well as New England and the South.

Though these internal improvements were begun
 The Use to develop the agricultural resources of
 of Coal Pennsylvania and to put the State in
 commercial relations with the West, their vast extension and final completion had other causes.

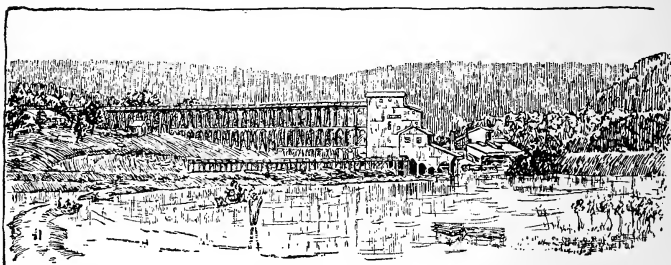
The Conestoga wagons might have transported the farmer's produce to market for many years more, had not Philip Ginter, the hunter, in 1791, discovered "stone coals," under the roots of a fallen tree, nine miles west of Mauch Chunk. Anthracite coal had been used in the Wyoming valley in 1768; and during the Revolutionary war it was shipped down the Susquehanna for the use of the arsenal at Carlisle. On a map of Pennsylvania, published in 1770, coal is marked as occurring near the present town of Pottsville. Pittsburg, too, had used fuel dug from a high bluff before the town, and even then was entitled to

be called the "Smoky City." Ginter had his specimen examined in Philadelphia, and the Lehigh Coal Mine Company was formed there. Ten thousand acres of land at Summit Hill were purchased and a half dozen arks, loaded with coal, were started down the Lehigh to Philadelphia. But wood was plenty, and the use of "stone coals" was not understood. Although handbills were printed in English and German explaining the method of burning it, yet the new fuel found no paying market, and it was used to pave the sidewalks. The same disappointments were experienced by shippers of anthracite coal from the Schuylkill region. One man was actually threatened with arrest as a swindler and an impostor, because his "rocks," after "poking and raking and stirring and blowing" them for half a day, would not burn.

It was not until after the second war with Great Britain, during which the embargo, the non-intercourse act and the blockade started manufacturing in the United States, that coal came into extensive use. Then canal and railroad building received a fresh impetus. First, the Lehigh and Schuylkill canals were made to tap the anthracite fields, the one completing communication with Philadelphia in 1820 and the other in 1825. Then, in 1833, the Philadelphia and Reading railroad company was chartered. It was the first of the coal roads, and by its enormous traffic it has become a great system, controlling about a thousand miles of line in a comparatively small portion of the State. The cities and towns which it reaches have had a wonderful growth in manufactures of all kinds. The coal fields of the Wyoming valley developed the two cities, Wilkes-Barre and Scranton, and a

score or more of smaller towns equally thriving, whose chief outlets east and west are the Lehigh Valley and the Lackawanna railroads.

Practically all the anthracite coal produced in this country comes from the hills and valleys of the Blue mountains, from the head waters of the Schuylkill and the Lehigh rivers, northward and westward to the Susquehanna—an area of a little less than 500 square miles. The counties included in the field are



Nanticoke Coal Breaker.

chiefly Schuylkill, Carbon, Luzerne, Lackawanna and Northumberland; and the number of persons employed in 1895 was 143,610. The bituminous field includes the whole section of the State in and west of the Allegheny mountains. The great center of all the industries that owe their existence to bituminous coal is Pittsburg. The number of employees in mining this kind of coal, in 1895, was 84,904.

These vast deposits of coal enabled Pennsylvania to become a great manufacturing State—
Manufacturing first, in the number of establishments and the amount of capital invested, and second, in the value of manufactured products. In 1890, the number

of persons employed was 620,562, and the value of the manufactures \$1,331,794,901. Manufacturing in the United States had its beginning on an enlarged scale in the adoption of the Federal Constitution. It put an end to the conflicting and restricting legislation of the States; and it gave the Federal government the power to protect home against foreign manufactures whenever necessary. During the Revolution many things were made here that used to be imported from the mother country; but from the force of habit, the people secured them again from the same source after the war, and opposed home manufactures to such an extent that the impost proposed by Congress in 1786 was violently assailed. The love of agriculture and commerce was deeply rooted. It was argued that the way to make money was to sow the fields with grain, harvest it when ripe, send a fleet of ships to the marts of the world, and have them come back laden with gold. The more poetic ones contrasted the low of cattle and the bleat of lambs with the din of mills and factories.

But such alluring pictures did not determine the policy of Pennsylvania. A few clear heads saw things otherwise, chief among whom was Tench Coxe, of Philadelphia. When cotton was still growing in gardens among rose bushes and honeysuckle vines, he saw that it would some day be king in America. No sooner had the Revolution ended than Coxe tried to import a model of Arkwright's famous spinning jennies; but the British government seized it on the eve of shipment, and Massachusetts set up the first stock-card and spinning-jenny. Nevertheless, through his efforts, Philadelphia and the State at large became

deeply interested in the manufacture of cotton and other goods. In 1789, hosiery, hats, gloves, coarse linens and woollens, cotton goods and many other articles were made in the State. Premiums were offered by the "Pennsylvania Society for the Encouragement of Manufactures" for the best specimens of these articles. In the same year, the Assembly passed "An act to assist cotton manufactures of this State," and offered bounties for the introduction of the Awkwright patents. It is said that Samuel Slater, the father of American cotton manufactures, was induced by these bounties to emigrate to America. General Washington used to point with pride to the Philadelphia fabrics worn by his wife. The worsted hosiery made in Germantown, Bethlehem, Lancaster and Reading undersold those of the same fineness made in England. Two hundred and fifty stocking-loom, each averaging about two pair a day, were in the State before 1790. One-fourth of the men in Philadelphia had already become manufacturers of one kind or another. Early in the nineteenth century, travelers were astonished at the great number of factories in the State. But it was not until about 1840, when the coal industry and the iron industry joined hands, that Pennsylvania entered fully upon its great manufacturing career.

The earliest iron produced from native ore was made at Coventry Forge, Chester county, in 1720. Following this, furnaces and forges were operated at various points in the southeastern part of the State,—Manatawny and Green Lane, in Montgomery county; Warwick, in Chester; Glasgow, in Berks; Cornwall and Colebrook, in

Lebanon; and Elizabeth, in Lancaster, where Baron Steigel made some of the first stoves cast in this country. In 1786, there were within forty miles of Lancaster, seventeen furnaces, forges, rolling and slitting mills, and two boring and grinding mills for the manufacture of gun barrels. The old forge at the junction of Valley creek and the Schuylkill gave us one of the most memorable names in American history—Valley Forge. In York and Cumberland counties, too, furnaces and forges were established before the Revolution. William Denning made wrought iron cannon for the Continental army, and a monument was recently erected by the State at his grave in Newville. After the Revolution the iron industry spread through the Juniata valley, where scores of towns and villages by their names testify to the presence of forges and furnaces in the earlier days. The first furnace west of the Alleghenies was built about 1790, on Jacob's creek, fifteen miles from its junction with the Youghiogheny, where cannon balls were made for the defense of Pittsburg against the Indians.

Before 1840, iron was made only in charcoal furnaces. As other States had an abundance of ore too, Pennsylvania might not have become the first in the manufacture of iron products, had it not been discovered that anthracite coal could be used as a smelting fuel. It marked an era in the history of iron manufacture when hard coal was successfully used at Mauch Chunk and Pottsville, in the reduction of iron ore. About the same time, a coke and "raw coal" furnace was erected in Armstrong county, and the manufacture of bituminous iron commenced. Coal furnaces were now rapidly built in

Coal Furnaces

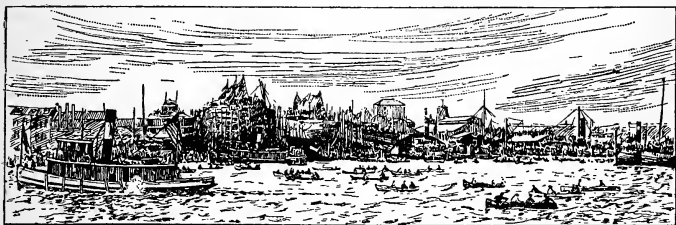
every section of the State accessible to the coal fields. Mills for the manufacture of all kinds of iron products were established in great numbers. Towns and cities sprang up; railroads and canals were built to connect them; and the farmers found a new market for their products among the coal miners and iron workers.

No place in Pennsylvania benefited more from the Pittsburg and its Neighbors iron industry than Pittsburg and the cities and towns in its vicinity. From the extent of its iron works, it came to be known as the "Iron City," and from the heavy clouds of bituminous smoke overhanging it, the name of "Smoky City" was also given to it. By reason of its position as chief gateway to the West and of its coal, iron, oil and natural gas, it is the chief center for the manufacture of iron and steel in the United States. The city is equally great in other things which its bountiful fuel enables it to make. About half the glass factories in the United States are located there—an industry which the town began in 1797. When the use of natural gas as fuel became common, Allegheny county acquired an additional facility for manufacturing, and in recent years it has become an empire in itself, including besides Pittsburg and Allegheny, McKeesport, Mifflin Township, Braddock, Homestead, and other populous towns and townships.

Natural gas had been known to exist in and around Pittsburg for many years, but was not utilized, except on a small scale, before 1884, when George Westinghouse became interested in it, and drilled a well on the grounds of his own residence. In two years' time, pipe-lines radiated from Pittsburg like the spokes of a wheel, and gas was brought there from a distance

of more than a hundred miles. The daily consumption has been as high as 120,000,000 cubic feet.

There are many other cities and towns that owe their growth chiefly to the manufacture of iron and its products, among which are Johnstown, New Castle, Steelton, Allentown, Bethlehem, Easton, Phoenixville, Danville, Kensington (a part of Philadelphia) and Chester. The last two named are noted for the building of iron steamships, the yards being known respectively as Cramp's and Roach's. The construction of iron steamships has been brought to such



Cramp's Ship Yard—Launching of the Yorktown and the Vesuvius.

perfection on the Delaware that it is sometimes called "the Clyde of America." After our war with Spain, all the world wanted to know how war vessels were built at Kensington. Russia ordered several ships at Cramp's at once, recalling to our memory the offer she made to Samuel Humphreys after the War of 1812.

The lumber industry became extensive with the building of railroads, towns and cities, and the manufacture of machinery incident to the establishment of the coal and iron industries. Philadelphia, Pittsburg and Erie had been building

The Lumber
Industry

ships and using lumber as an article of commerce before. Ship carpenters were among the very first mechanics in the Province. The Swedes had been building vessels before Penn came, and in 1683 a ship yard was established in Philadelphia. Other yards and docks were opened there, and the city became famous for ship building. It was a common practice to sell both ship and cargo in foreign ports. During the Revolution, a Continental and a State fleet were built on the Delaware, and when Congress established the Navy Department, in 1798, the first navy yard was located there. The extensive construction of wooden craft was discontinued about 1860. Erie has been a great lumber market ever since Perry's gallant fleet was constructed from trees in the surrounding forest; while Pittsburg built many steamboats for the southern and western rivers, and appropriated the products of the forest in other ways.

The lumber industry of later years centered in the city of Williamsport. After 1840, it made such rapid progress, that a great boom was erected in the river at that place, for the purpose of holding the logs floated down from the pineries above until they could be taken out and sawed. Before 1850, the logs used to be caught by men in small boats and tied into rafts. The boom proved so successful that it was enlarged from time to time, until it extended a long distance up the river. In the spring it is packed so solidly with logs that one can walk across the river on them. The large piers, the heavy timbers bolted together, and the construction of the dam, is an immense piece of work. The number of mills in Williamsport engaged in manufacturing lumber, and dressing it in various ways, has

made the town one of the most flourishing in the State. Lock Haven is the next largest emporium in the lumber district. The West Branch boom was erected there about the same time as that at Williamsport, and the sawmills are extensive. The forests from



The Boom at Williamsport.

which this great lumber industry was developed are mostly white pine and hemlock, and are located along the West Branch of the Susquehanna and its tributaries.

The last great industry of Pennsylvania is that of petroleum. Only about forty years have passed since the first still was charged with petroleum, and the first barrel of refined oil was offered for sale; yet its exports rank fourth in value, being surpassed only by cotton, breadstuffs and provisions; while every home in our own land enjoys its beneficent light. It is estimated that the total capital employed for the production, manufacture and transportation of petroleum and its products amounts to \$300,000,000. There is evidence that this oil was used in the gray dawn of history—in Nineveh, Babylon and Egypt. Certain it is, that in America the Indians collected their "Seneca oil" from petroleum springs; and indications are not wanting to show that the Mound Builders had dug wells in Pennsylvania and Ohio.

The French, in their explorations, made note of "a fountain at the head of a branch of the Ohio, the water of which is like oil." English and American soldiers on duty in western Pennsylvania halted at "oil creek," and bathed their rheumatic joints with the oil that floated on it. Later on, while boring for brine to make salt, oil appeared, greatly to the annoyance of salt operators.

The history of the industry dates from the year 1858, when, on the 28th of August, E. Drake's Oil Well L. Drake "struck oil" on Watson's Flats, near Titusville. He was the first man to drive a pipe-



Colonel Drake's Oil Well.

through the sand and clay. After putting down a tube to the depth of 36 feet he struck rock. Then he commenced to drill. When, on Saturday night, August 27, the bore had penetrated the rock 33 feet, the drill dropped into a crevice about 6 inches. The tools were pulled out and

put aside, to resume work on Monday. "Uncle Billy" Smith, who did the boring, went to the well on Sunday, and found a liquid within a few feet from the top. He dipped some of it up, and lo! it was oil. The pump was started on Monday, and the well produced at the rate of 25 barrels a day.

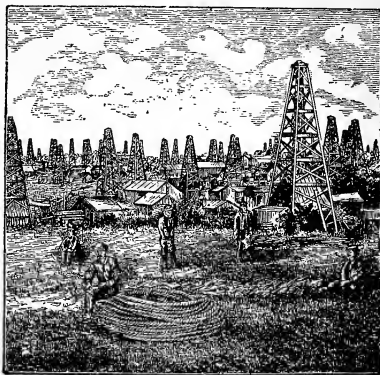
Oil had been collected near Titusville, on an island at the junction of Oil and Line creeks, for nearly ten years before Drake bored

Other Wells

his well. It was done by means of a series of pits, arranged like separators, the water flowing below, leaving the oil floating on the surface, to be dipped up with blankets. Specimens of this oil had been examined and its use for illuminating purposes demonstrated. As the whale oil industry was then on the decline, and the burning fluid made of English and

Nova Scotia coal was not satisfactory, there was a demand for a new illuminant. The success of Drake's well, therefore, soon brought forth others in great numbers, along Oil and French creeks and the Allegheny river.

The next discovery was the flowing well. These gushers or petroleum fountains greatly increased the quantity produced. In 1862 the drillers, becoming crowded in the river bottoms, pushed back into the adjacent country, and discovered that the high lands of Clarion, Butler, Armstrong, McKean and Warren counties also covered the hidden treasure. The production in Washington and Greene counties did not become important until 1885. According to the census of 1890, there were 31,768 producing wells in the



Oil Derricks.

State. Adding to this number those not then in operation, there were probably as many oil derricks in Pennsylvania as there are square miles.

The transportation of oil was at first in barrels, Transportation
of Oil hauled on trucks to Oil City, or on barges, which were carried down the shallow stream by means of artificial floods produced by opening a series of dams. At Oil City the barrels were transferred to larger boats and shipped to Pittsburg, the great distributing center. In 1866, the Allegheny Valley railroad was opened, and cars built specially for transporting oil. In time, the pipe line displaced the car and boat. This method was first used at Pithole, for a distance of four miles, over an ascent of 500 feet. The owners and drivers of oil wagons threatened vengeance upon the proprietor of the little pipe line, and it had to be guarded by an armed patrol. Today the oil region is a network of pipes, and great trunk lines supply the needs of New York, Philadelphia, Baltimore, Cleveland, Buffalo, Pittsburg and Chicago. The total length of pipe line transporting Pennsylvania crude oil, is about 25,000 miles—"a girdle for the earth." The trunk line to Philadelphia starts at Colgrove, McKean county, its 6-inch pipe extending over a distance of 235 miles. Petroleum has also added greatly to the manufactures. The number and variety of its products are almost limitless.

Another interest of considerable magnitude is that Slate of the slate quarries, which are found in the northern half of Northampton and Lehigh counties and the eastern quarter of Berks county. The slate region has an extreme length of 50 miles and a

maximum breadth of 13 miles. Some slate is also found in Chester and York counties. The first quarry was opened in upper Mount Bethel township, Northampton county, about the year 1812. Since then the industry has added much to Pennsylvania's wealth, as the annual shipments of such towns as Slatington, Pen Argyl and Bangor will show. The Slatington region alone in 1882 produced as high as 110,000 squares of roofing slate (4 or 5 squares to a ton), 30,000 cases of school slate (10 dozen to a case) and 100 blackboard cases. The use of slate for blackboard purposes has since then greatly increased.

For many years the nickel mines in Bart township, Lancaster county, known as the Gap
Nickel and Zinc
Mines, were an important mining interest.

They had been worked at intervals from the year 1718 for their copper. In 1852, it was discovered that large quantities of nickel had been mined with the copper and thrown away as refuse. The Gap Copper Mines at once became the Gap Nickel Mines, and smelting works were put up near by. There were mined and smelted more than 600 tons of ore in a month when the production was at its highest; but the industry has been abandoned for some time.

Another ore of much value is the zinc ore of Lehigh county. The mine is situated at Friedensville, and consists of very large and extended excavations. It has been worked to a depth of 250 feet, though in late years it has been idle. Then, there are the brown-stone quarries near Hummelstown, Dauphin county, and the blue-stone quarries of northeastern Pennsylvania, both of which are widely known in the eastern part of the United States.

Although mining and manufacturing are the leading interests in Pennsylvania, its agriculture must necessarily rank high. We have some of the finest farming land in the world, and our thriving and populous towns and cities afford a market for all that the farmers can produce, and a great deal more. In the production of corn and wheat, the State surpasses all the other Atlantic States; and its dairy and truck farms surround a hundred centers of population large enough to consume the products. The small farms of Pennsylvania are more profitable than the large ones, here or elsewhere, in proportion to the capital invested. Of the six counties in the United States whose agricultural products were the most valuable in 1889, Lancaster ranked first and Chester and Bucks third and fourth respectively; while the Young farms, in Dauphin county, are pronounced the finest in the world.

BOOKS FOR READING AND CONSULTATION

Scharf and Westcott's *History of Philadelphia*, Vol. III, Chs. liii-lvi; Wilson's *History of Pennsylvania Railroad Company*; Fisher's *Pennsylvania Colony and Commonwealth*, Ch. viii; Trego's *Geography of Pennsylvania*, pp. 116-164; Bowen's *Pictorial Sketch Book of Pennsylvania*; *Petroleum, Its Production and Products in Pennsylvania*, in the Report of the Bureau of Industrial Statistics, 1897; *Bulletin of the Department of Labor*, No. 13, November, 1897; Sypher's *School History of Pennsylvania*, Ch. xxxv; *Governors' Messages*, in the House and Senate Journals, 1790-1898; Swank's *Iron and Coal in Pennsylvania*; McMaster's *History of the People of the United States*, Vol. I, See Index for "Manufactures," Vol. II, See Index for "Internal Improvements."

CHAPTER VII

EDUCATION IN PENNSYLVANIA

At the time when the Dutch and the Swedes settled on the Delaware, the schools of Europe were usually under the control of the church. The minister himself was the schoolmaster, or the schoolmaster was the minister's assistant. Evert Pieterse, who taught the first school on the west bank of the Delaware, in a church at New Castle, 1657, was to act as "Sexton, Psalm-Setter, Comforter of the Sick, and Schoolmaster." The people were "poor and scattered," and the few churches and preachers among them had to do double duty. In many cases the parents taught their children under the oversight of the clergyman. A-B-C books, primers, and catechisms were sent from Sweden in large numbers.

Among the
Dutch and
the Swedes

But the schools of the Dutch and the Swedes are merely an historical curiosity. The foundations of education in Pennsylvania were laid by William Penn and the Assembly at its first and second sessions. The twelfth provision of the Frame of Government says:

Foundations
Laid

That the Governor and Provincial Council shall erect and order all public schools, and encourage and reward the authors of useful sciences and laudable inventions.

Penn held that the government is a trustee for

the youth, and must look after their education. In this way it would endear itself to the people; for they would remember the government more for their education than for their estates. The practical or industrial side of education was especially emphasized by the founder of our State. His ideas and plans are expressed in the following act of the Assembly which met at Philadelphia in 1683:

And to the end that poor, as well as rich, may be instructed in good and commendable learning, which is to be preferred before wealth, *Be it enacted, etc.*, That all persons in this Province and Territories thereof, having children, and all the guardians and trustees of orphans, shall cause such to be instructed in reading and writing, so that they may be able to read the Scriptures and to write by the time they attain to twelve years of age; and that then they be taught some useful trade or skill, that the poor may work to live, and the rich if they become poor may not want; of which every County Court shall take care. And in case such parents, guardians or overseers shall be found deficient in this respect, they shall pay for every such child five pounds. * * *

This act of 1683 took advanced ground. It provided for "state education," "universal education," "industrial education," and "compulsory education." Acting upon its provisions, Penn and the Provincial Council that same year engaged Enoch Flower, from England, to open a school in a house built of pine and cedar planks. In 1689, the Friends' Public Grammar School, which afterwards became the William Penn Charter School, was opened in Philadelphia. The master had to be licensed by the Governor and Council. It was not a public school in the American sense now, but resembled the so-called "public schools" of England. It was endowed

and free only to the poor, who were educated in branch schools located in various parts of the town.

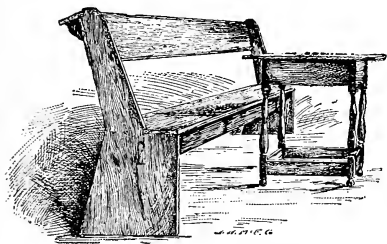
This was all that was done by the State for the education of its people, down to the Revolutionary War. The Charter of Privileges

The Church
Schools

(see p. 104) contained no clause even relating to education. As stated before, church and school dwelt under the same roof in those days; but as there were so many churches in Pennsylvania, it was impossible to have a state school. The various sects and churches had schools of their own. The earliest school started by private effort was one on Tinicum island. Darby, too, became the seat of a school, in 1692. One was established at Germantown in 1701, with the learned Pastorius at its head. No sooner had Christ Church been founded than a school house sprang up by its side. Schools are known to have been taught by the Baptist preachers in their early churches in Bucks and Chester counties. The Scotch-Irish regarded the church and the school house as twin agents of civilization, and their clearings were never without them. The Catholics, with whom it is the policy even now to entrust education to the church, are known to have had a school in the priest's house at Goshenhoppen, Berks county, soon after their German mission was established there. The Lutherans at New Hanover, Montgomery county, received a gift of fifty acres of land for their church and school. One of the fathers of the Reformed Church in Pennsylvania preached and taught in his own house in Montgomery county for some years soon after 1720.

No church or sect was more active in education

than the Moravians. At Nazareth, Bethlehem and Lititz they had nurseries, where the children above one or two years of age were fed, clothed, instructed and cared for at the expense of the brethren. Later parochial schools, with infant departments attached, displaced the nurseries. The Mennonites at Germantown built a log church in 1706, which was afterwards



Dock's Table and Bench.

used as their school house. In the present building, 130 years old, stands the table at which "the pious schoolmaster of the Skippack"—Christopher Dock—sat when he taught school in that town. He is the author of the first book on school

teaching published in America. He died one evening after school while kneeling at his desk to pray—as was his custom. The Schwenckfelders and Tunkers, worshipping for many years in houses and barns, instructed their children at home. Among the Seventh Day Baptists at Ephrata, a hive of intellectual activity, the first Sabbath school in America was opened.

Where people lived five or ten miles from a church, Neighborhood or where a variety of religious denomina-
Schools tions existed, schools were organized by neighborhoods. These were known as "pay" or "subscription" schools. The building of a house and the employment of a teacher was usually entrusted to a committee elected by the neighborhood. The money needed was raised by voluntary subscription. The pay schools soon outnumbered those sustained by re-

ligious bodies, owing to the intermixing of the sects and churches as the population grew. It was said of the country around Philadelphia that by 1750 a school-house stood "in almost every ridge of woods." When the people crossed the mountains and came in contact with settlers from Maryland, Virginia, New York and New England, there was such an intermingling socially, that neighborhood schools had few prejudices to encounter. Many ministers were teachers, but the churches were not organically connected with primary education in central, western, and northern Pennsylvania. In the Wyoming valley, 960 acres of land were set apart in each township "for the public use of a Gospel Ministry and schools." Some of the schools in that section were altogether free before the Revolution. They were supported by the public fund and a tax on property.

When the Revolution made necessary the formation of a new constitution in Pennsylvania, The Constitutions of 1776 and 1790 this is what was said in it about education :

A school or schools shall be established in each county by the Legislature for the convenient instruction of youth, with such salaries to the masters, paid by the public, as may enable them to instruct youth at low prices ; and all useful learning shall be duly encouraged and promoted in one or two Universities.

The State, in 1776, took no ground in advance of the church and community schools, when it proposed to furnish elementary instruction "at low prices." Both classes of schools had always striven to reach people of moderate circumstances. In 1790, however, Timothy Pickering, of Luzerne, supported by Thomas McKean, of Philadelphia, William Findley, of West-

moreland, and others, succeeded in getting the words — *"in such a manner that the poor may be taught gratis"* — attached to the constitutional clause on schools. On



Alexander Wilson's School House, 1804.

these words rests the system of common schools; for, in order to teach the poor gratis, it was finally determined to teach the rich gratis, too.

The idea of teaching the poor at public expense was stimulated in its slow growth by several educational movements.

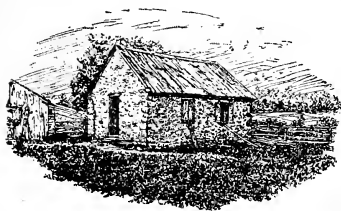
The charity schools of

Philadelphia helped to develop it. A charity school to qualify "a number of the poorer sort as schoolmasters in the country," was at first connected with what is now the University of Pennsylvania. The attempt to teach the Germans the English language (see p. 49) was a step towards lending a helping hand in education. It was the first educational movement to become general in the province. The schools of the Quakers, but more especially of the Moravians, for the education of the Indians,—an object set forth in Penn's charter for the founding of Pennsylvania,—were noble examples of free education for the poor. Then, there were the schools for colored people, in Philadelphia, Harrisburg, Pittsburg, and elsewhere. They were open day and evening, for young and old, and were taught by volunteers, who served by turns.

The movement that led up nearest to the present free schools was the Lancasterian system—The Lancasterian System a scheme by which the poor could be taught gratis at a very low expense. After 1790, repeated efforts were made to carry out the constitutional provision in relation to the education of the poor. But the laws passed resulted in dividing the people into two classes—the rich and the poor. The children who were taught gratis became known as “pauper scholars,” and were ashamed to go to the “pauper schools,” while the “pay scholars,” were too proud to go. The Lancasterian system, named after Joseph Lancaster, an Englishman, and devised by him in London, at the close of the eighteenth century, employed the older pupils as monitors to instruct the others. Lancaster prepared his pupil assistants for their daily work somewhat after the method employed by a Sunday school superintendent at his teachers’ meetings. The system was tried in Philadelphia with such satisfactory results that the Legislature passed a law in 1818, establishing public schools in that city, in which it was to be used in its “most approved state.” Lancaster himself came to Philadelphia to carry the law into effect. Four years later, Lancaster was formed into a second school district like that of Philadelphia, in which public schools of the Lancasterian kind were supported by public taxes. Dauphin county, in 1827, was authorized to have the same kind of schools; and a number of other places in the State introduced them.

The Lancasterian system was followed by marked improvements. The pupil-teacher, trained Improvements that followed under the eye of an experienced master, was better than the pedagogue of colonial times, who

generally tramped the country when he did not teach. With better teachers came better houses—stone, brick or frame; and a more extended course of study than



An Old School House, 1825.

the three R's, including geography and Lindley Murray's English grammar. But in spite of these improvements, less than 24,000 children attended school at public expense in 1833—only about $\frac{1}{56}$ of the entire population; whereas,

now the school enrollment is about $\frac{1}{5}$ of the population. It was not until the law of 1834 (see p. 202) had removed distinctions of birth and wealth that the little red school house dotted all the hills and valleys of Pennsylvania.

The free school law of 1834 allowed the people of each district to decide at an election whether to adopt it or not. About half of the districts accepted it then, and by 1848 it had grown so much in popular favor that it was made general. However, if a district was willing to lose its State appropriation, it was not compelled to maintain free schools; and it was not until 1874 that the last district accepted the law. State Superintendent Wickersham then said, in his annual report: "For the first time in our history, the door of a public school house stands open to receive every child of proper age within the limits of the State." The progress of popular education after 1850 was very rapid. In 1854, greater power to collect the school tax was given; geography and grammar,

The Free Schools

together with such higher branches as the directors might prescribe, were to be taught in every school; provision for graded schools was made; and the office of county superintendent was established. Three years later, the State Superintendency of Common Schools was made a separate office; before that its duties were performed by the Secretary of the Commonwealth. At the same time the Normal School law was passed, by which the State was divided into twelve districts,—later increased to thirteen,—in each of which, beginning with 1859, has been established a school for the professional preparation of teachers.

As there are many children and youths in the charitable and penal institutions, it was The State's Interest Grows felt necessary to have some oversight given to their instruction and training, especially as the State grants financial aid to their support. For this purpose the State Board of Public Charities was instituted in 1869. For the same reasons the Soldiers' Orphan Schools were placed under State supervision. Evening schools were authorized by law in 1883, when it was ordered that if the parents of twenty or more pupils, above the age of six years, made application, a free evening school for a term of not less than four months should be established. But the crowning acts to make elementary education universal were the free text-book law of 1893, and the compulsory attendance law of 1895. Children between the age of eight and thirteen years—and those between thirteen and sixteen, unless usefully employed—are now required to attend school at least 70 per centum of the time during which the schools are open in their district. Such attendance is possible, because

all books and supplies are free. The State, by local taxation, and by general appropriation (\$5,000,000), spends about \$20,000,000 for the common schools every year.

Higher education by public authority began with a resolution of the Provincial Council, calling for "a School of Arts and Sciences," out of which grew the William Penn Charter School (see p. 278). This institution developed into a school in which Latin, Greek, and other higher branches were taught, and is today one of the oldest of its kind in this country. The next step was taken by Franklin and others, when, in 1749, they founded the Academy and Charitable School of the Province of Pennsylvania. This academy, in 1755, became the College at Philadelphia, and in 1779 the University of Pennsylvania; and with each act of incorporation, the institution received a grant of land and money. The other colleges and academies now in the State were all established after the Revolutionary war. As long as there were no free schools, the act of incorporation usually carried with it a grant from the State, on condition that a certain number of poor students should receive instruction free. The colleges and academies, during that time, also received an annual appropriation on the same condition. In 1838 there were nine colleges and one hundred and seven academies and female seminaries receiving appropriations. A few years later, when the State was hard pressed for money on account of its public improvements, and when the common schools needed all the financial assistance possible, the appropriations were withheld.

As the common schools grew in favor, the necessity for the scholastic and professional preparation of teachers became apparent. For this specific and technical purpose Normal Schools were instituted. On account of their vital importance to the State they receive aid from that source.

Normal Schools

Most of the colleges in this State are denominational. The first college in Pennsylvania—the famous "Log College"—was of this kind.

**The Church and
Higher Education**

It was established in 1726 by Rev. Wm. Tennent, pastor of the Neshaminy Presbyterian church, Bucks county. Tennent prepared young men there for the ministry and other callings. Out of this school grew Princeton College, New Jersey. Like "Log College," other schools were taught here and there, in colonial times, by learned divines who knew enough Latin to make it the language of the schoolroom. But the era of colleges proper did not come much before the nineteenth century. It requires wealth to found higher institutions of learning. When the churches once had means, they soon had colleges. Pennsylvania now has five universities and twenty-seven colleges. That most of them are denominational is due to the fact that so many churches and sects settled the State.

But the common schools, normal schools and colleges do not include all that the State and its people have done for education. We need but mention Girard College and the School for the Blind, in Philadelphia, the School for Feeble-minded Children in Media, Lincoln University at Oxford, the Reformatory at Huntingdon, the Pennsylvania Reform School at Morganza, the School for the Deaf and Dumb in Pittsburg—as well as like institutions in other parts

of the State—to appreciate what giant efforts have been put forth for the improvement of all classes of society.

Pennsylvania is known as the Keystone State—
The Keystone State possibly on account of the fact that six of the “original thirteen” are to the north and six to the south of her; but probably because she was considered to hold the balance of political power between six free States and six slave States, after the Union under the Constitution had been formed. Whichever reason may be the true one, it long since ceased to exist; and if we would continue to occupy the proud position we must do it by our rank in the Union. But the rank of a State depends upon her schools.

BOOKS FOR READING AND CONSULTATION

Graydon's *Memoirs*, ch. i; Scharf and Wescott's *History of Philadelphia*, Vol. III, ch. xlvii; *Proposals Relating to the Education of Youth in Pennsylvania*, 1749; Boone's *Education in the United States*, see Index; Watson's *Annals of Philadelphia*, Vol. I, pp. 286–297, and Vol. III, p. 163; Wickersham's *History of Education in Pennsylvania*; *The Common School Laws of Pennsylvania*.

CHAPTER VIII

BIOGRAPHICAL SKETCHES

THE GOVERNORS OF PENNSYLVANIA

WILLIAM MARKHAM (under Penn, 1681-1682 ; under Fletcher, 1693-1695 ; under Penn, 1695-1699 ; and in Delaware under Penn, 1691-1693) was a cousin of William Penn, a soldier by profession, and but twenty-one years of age when he arrived as Deputy-Governor. He came to Philadelphia by way of New York, where he informed the Governor of that colony that his rule of the Delaware had passed into William Penn's hands. He died in Philadelphia, 1704, and was buried with military honors by direction of Governor Evans. Pennsylvania owes much to William Markham. He nursed the colony in its infancy, and the child no doubt caused him many a sleepless night.

WILLIAM PENN (1682-84, 1699-1701) was born in London in 1644. His father was Admiral William Penn, who had distinguished himself in the British navy, and was anxious that his only son should be a man of prominence. To this end, he sent William to Oxford. While there, the youth became deeply impressed by the preaching of the Quaker, Thomas Loe, and was expelled from college for refusing to comply with certain regulations of dress, which he now regarded as wrong. To efface the impressions of Loe's preaching, Admiral Penn sent his son to the Continent, where he traveled for a time. Upon returning, William studied law, became an attache to his father in the naval service, and in 1665 assumed the management of a family estate near Cork. He acquired some military renown as a soldier, and had a portrait of himself painted in military costume. While in Ireland, Penn once more heard Thomas Loe preach, and this time the arrow of conviction went straight to his heart. He joined the Friends, adopted their principles, and shared their persecutions. At a meeting in Cork, he, with others, was arrested and thrown into prison. When released, he began to preach and write the Quaker doctrine. The conversion to the Quakers of so prominent a person as the son of Admiral Penn was the talk of the kingdom. The father tried hard to undo Loe's work, and even made his son leave home ; but William refused to depart from the Quaker customs, even so much as to take off his hat to his father, the King and the Duke of York. During his banishment from home, a mother's love provided him secretly with

an allowance. His writings being regarded as heretical, he was arrested and thrown into the Tower of London for eight months, where he wrote his celebrated work, "No Cross, No Crown." Admiral Penn now became touched by the heroic conduct of his son, and had him liberated. The two were reconciled, and William again took charge of the estates in Ireland, but only for a short time. Resuming his preaching in England in 1670, he was once more thrown into prison. After being released again, he continued to write, preach, and travel in the interests of civil and religious liberty, and upon his return from Germany and Holland his history merged into that of Pennsylvania.

THOMAS LLOYD (President of Council, 1684-86; one of five Commissioners, 1686-88; President of Council, 1690-91; Deputy-Governor, 1691-93) was entrusted with the keeping of the Great Seal when Penn sailed for England in 1684. He had been educated at Oxford and had held places of trust in England. Having become a Quaker, he resolved to come to Pennsylvania, where he arrived in 1683, on the same ship with Pastorius. Lloyd's first office was that of land commissioner, of whom there were three. When he asked to be relieved from his executive duties in 1688, Penn gave his consent very reluctantly, yet he afterwards served twice in the same capacity. He died in 1694, at the early age of 45.

JOHN BLACKWELL (1688-90) had been a captain in Cromwell's army, and was at the time of his selection in one of the New England colonies. "Since no *Friend*," says Penn, "would undertake the Governor's place, I took one that was not, and a stranger, that he might be impartial and more revered." But Penn's hopes were not realized. After a little more than a year of turbulent rule, the Military Governor was relieved of his authority; and he expressed his thanks that he had escaped from his troubles.

ANDREW HAMILTON (1701-1703), the first Deputy-Governor after Markham's long and repeated rule, was a native of Scotland and a merchant in Edinburgh. On his arrival in America, he was made Governor of New Jersey. He planned a system of post offices in the colonies, and was made Deputy Postmaster-General for all the plantations. He died as Governor of Pennsylvania, while on a visit to his family at Amboy, New Jersey, in 1703.

EDWARD SHIPPEN (President of Council, 1703-04) succeeded to executive authority on the death of Hamilton. He was Philadelphia's first mayor. Tradition has it that he was distinguished for three things—the biggest man, the biggest house and the biggest carriage. He came early into the province from Boston, whither he had gone from England, and whence he had fled on account of the persecutions meted out to the Quakers. He was the grandfather of Chief Justice Shippen and an ancestor of Dr. William Shippen, the first medical lecturer in Philadelphia, and the second in America.

JOHN EVANS (1704-1709) was of Welsh descent, but born in London. When appointed Governor, he was a member of the Queen's household. He was too young and inexperienced to make a good executive, while his private life gave great offense. William Penn the younger had come with him to Philadelphia, and the two held high carnival at times in the staid and quiet city of that day.

CHARLES GOOKIN (1709-17) was an Irishman. He was the opposite of Evans in age and morals; yet he did not please the Assembly. He had been a captain in the English army, and the selection of a military Governor under Penn, "the Apostle of Peace," was somewhat of an anomaly. He returned to England after his term of office.

SIR WILLIAM KEITH (1717-26) was the son of a Scotch baron, and had held office under the British government before he was appointed Governor, having been for some time the King's surveyor of customs for the southern provinces. In this capacity he had visited Philadelphia and become favorably known there. Having made himself popular with the people, he was elected to the Assembly upon retiring from the governorship. He went back to England afterwards and died in obscurity.

PATRICK GORDON (1726-36) was another military man, having served from his youth in the English army. William Penn had died in Keith's administration and Gordon was accordingly appointed by Springett Penn, the heir-at-law of the proprietary family. He died in office in 1736, after ten years of a happy administration.

JAMES LOGAN (President of Council, 1736-38) came to America with Penn on his second visit in 1699, as secretary. He was born in Ireland, of Scottish parentage, in 1674, and at the age of thirteen had acquired Latin, Greek and Hebrew. Later he became proficient in mathematics and the modern languages. He made investigations in botany and other sciences, wrote books and corresponded with the learned men in Europe. His library was joined with Franklin's to make the Philadelphia library, the first circulating library in the colonies. Penn invested him with many important trusts, which were nobly discharged. Although he never was Governor in name, in his capacity as secretary of the Province, member of the Council, commissioner of property, and Chief Justice, he was everything to Penn and the Penn family from the day he entered their service until he died, in 1751. He was a warm friend of the Indians. His classic home at Stenton, near Germantown, was nearly always surrounded by Indian delegations, who camped there to seek advice and favor from their honored friend "hid in the bushes."

SIR GEORGE THOMAS (1738-47), the son of a wealthy planter, was born at Antigua, in the West Indies. He was a mem-

ber of the government of that island when appointed, and after his term of office was Governor of the Leeward and Carribee Islands. He afterwards became a baronet, and died in London.

ANTHONY PALMER (President of Council, 1747-48) was a gentleman of wealth, who had come to the Province in 1708, from the West Indies. It is said that he lived in great style, keeping a coach and a pleasure barge, in which he made his visits from the "Governor's House" at Shackamaxon to the city. He died in 1749.

JAMES HAMILTON (1748-54, 1759-63, and President of Council in 1771) was a native of Philadelphia, possessed of a large fortune, and experienced in the affairs of the Province by serving as Prothonotary. He was twice appointed Governor, serving ten years altogether. He held other offices, and was a very popular man until the Revolutionary movement began, when he took sides with the Crown. He died in New York in 1783.

ROBERT HUNTER MORRIS (1754-56) was bred a lawyer, and was Chief Justice of New Jersey for twenty years. His administration in Pennsylvania occurred at a stormy time in the history, and neither he nor the Province had many pleasant recollections of it. Upon his retirement, he returned to New Jersey, where he died in 1764.

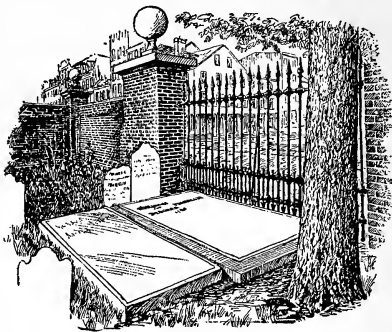
WILLIAM DENNY (1756-59) was born in England. On finishing his career as Governor of Pennsylvania, he returned thither, where he retired on an annuity from the Crown. He was received at Philadelphia with great honors; but his disagreements with the Assembly made his recall necessary. He had to sign bills contrary to his instructions in order to get his salary.

JOHN PENN (1763-71 and 1773-1776), the son of Richard and grandson of William Penn, was a native of Philadelphia, born in 1728. He was twice Governor—from 1763 to 1771, and again from 1773 to the end of the proprietary government, in 1776. He remained here during the Revolution, and, having refused to sign a parole, was confined in New Jersey and Virginia. He died at his home in Bucks county, 1795, and was buried in Christ's graveyard, from which his remains were afterwards transferred to England.

RICHARD PENN (1771-73), brother of John Penn, and, hence, also grandson of William Penn, was born in England, 1734. After coming here, he became a member of the Provincial Council and a naval officer. As Governor, he secured public confidence to such an extent that when, in 1775, he sailed for England, the second petition of Congress to the King was entrusted to him for presentation to the Privy Council. Parliament availed itself of his information on American affairs, and he subsequently became a member of that body. He died in England in 1811.

BENJAMIN FRANKLIN (chairman of Committee of Safety,

1776-77; and President of Supreme Executive Council, 1785-88) was born at Boston, in 1706, but disagreeing with his brother, to whom he had been apprenticed as a printer, he came to Philadelphia in 1723. He got work from Andrew Bradford, and in a year had saved enough to seek his fortune in London. He soon returned to Philadelphia, and again worked as a journeyman; but not long, for in 1830 he had a printing establishment, was editor and proprietor of the *Pennsylvania Gazette*, and had married Deborah Reed, the girl that laughed at him when he walked past her house eating dry rolls. Two years later, Franklin published "*Poor Richard's Almanac*," the first number being "for the year of Christ 1733." He was now a busy man, yet he studied French, Italian, Spanish, and Latin, wrote pamphlets and essays, and gave time to society and the lodge. In 1736 he got his first salaried office, clerk of the Assembly; and with that appointment began his long life of public service, more varied and extended than that of any other man in America. The fact that he signed the Declaration of Independence, the treaty of alliance with France, the treaty of peace with England, and the Federal Constitution, shows what great services he rendered to the United States. The last years of his life were spent in great feebleness and much physical suffering, and death was welcome when it came, April 17, 1790. His remains were buried in Christ Church graveyard, at the corner of Fifth and Arch streets, where thousands stop every year to look at the modest tombstones of Benjamin and Deborah Franklin.



Franklin's Grave.

THOMAS WHARTON, JR. (1777-78), was born in Philadelphia, 1735, his grandfather having emigrated from England to Pennsylvania the year after Penn's arrival. Being a warm supporter of the Revolution, he was made President of the Supreme Executive Council, in 1777, and as such, became the first Executive of Pennsylvania as a State. He died in office while the seat of government was temporarily at Lancaster, during the occupation of Philadelphia by the British. At the request of the vestry, his body was entombed within the walls of Trinity Church, Lancaster.

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GEORGE BRYAN (May-December, 1778) was Vice-President of the Council when Thomas Wharton, Jr., died. He thereupon

assumed the office of President and Chief Executive. He was a native of Ireland, and upon settling in Philadelphia engaged in the mercantile business, but was not successful. He was long in the public service—member of the Stamp Act Congress, of the Assembly, and of the Executive Council. He was a sincere patriot at all times, and his sympathy for his fellowman made him a champion for human freedom. (See p. 172.) He died in 1791, and lies buried in the Presbyterian graveyard, Arch street, near Fifth, Philadelphia.

JOSEPH REED (1778–81) was born at Trenton, New Jersey, 1741. After graduating at the College of New Jersey (Princeton), and studying law in London, he practiced law and held office in his native State. Upon settling in Philadelphia, he became at once prominent in public affairs, serving on the Committee of Correspondence, in Congress, and in the Continental Army. He declined the office of Chief Justice of the State, as well as a brigadier-generalship. As President of the Council, he was popular with the people on account of his energy, activity and patriotism. He was a leader in the establishment of the University of Pennsylvania, the abolition of slavery, and the divestment of the Penns of their proprietary rights. He died in Philadelphia, 1785, at the early age of 44, literally worn out in the service of his country.

WILLIAM MOORE (1781–82), born in Philadelphia, was a merchant when the Revolution drew him into public affairs. He was active in the measures adopted by the State and Congress to remove the oppressions of England. After his term of office as President of the Council, he entered the Assembly and kept up his interest in public affairs till he died, in 1793.

JOHN DICKINSON (1782–85), though born in Maryland (1732) and living in Delaware for a time, is claimed by Pennsylvania as one of her greatest sons. After studying law in Philadelphia and London, he hung out his sign in Philadelphia. As early as 1764 he was a member of the Assembly, and for the next twelve years the leading man in Pennsylvania. His star went down for a time, because he opposed the Declaration of Independence as premature; but he was too great to skulk. He shouldered the musket in defense of his country, and was made brigadier-general of the State militia. After he had retired to his farm in Delaware, he was first sent to Congress by that State and then elected as its executive. When the Revolution was over, Dickinson returned to Philadelphia and was soon after honored with the presidency of the Executive Council. In the Constitutional Convention, in 1787, and in the campaign for its ratification by the States, he again demonstrated his great power and influence. When our relations with France were on the point of breaking, he took up his pen for the last time. John Dickinson died at Wilmington, Delaware, in 1808.

THOMAS MIFFLIN (1788-99), by his conspicuous services as statesman and soldier in the Revolutionary period and after, holds a high place in the history of Pennsylvania. He was born in Philadelphia in 1744, trained in the faith of the Quakers, and intended for the mercantile business, which he pursued for a time. He was chosen to the Assembly at the age of 28, and two years later he was a member of the first Continental Congress. At the opening of the Revolution he entered the Continental Army as major of a Pennsylvania battalion, and after the battle of Germantown resigned as major-general. At the battle of Long Island, Mifflin covered the retreat and, in spite of a dreadful mistake in his orders, did it heroically. His resignation was forced upon him by impaired health, but Congress would not accept it, and he continued his duties as quartermaster-general till 1778, and later on received the thanks of Congress for "wise and salutary plans recommended," to reduce the general expenses. After the war, he was elected to Congress and served as President for a year. He was also a member of that great and honorable body which framed the Federal Constitution. His valuable services in the Legislature as Speaker of the Assembly and president of the Council, and in the convention which framed the constitution of 1790, over which he presided, made him the almost unanimous choice for the first Governor of the State. After holding this high office as long as the constitution permitted, he again entered the Legislature and died in the harness, at Lancaster, in 1800. His remains are buried at the German Lutheran church of that city.

THOMAS M'KEAN (1799-1808), whose parents were natives of Ireland, belonged to Pennsylvania and Delaware. He was born in Londonderry, Chester county, 1734, but studied and practiced law in New Castle, Delaware, and was a member of the Legislature of that State. Having been well educated and endowed with great ability, he became one of the pillars of the Revolution. In the Stamp Act Convention, held in New York, he assisted in drawing up the address of the colonies to the House of Commons. He was a member of the Continental Congress from both Pennsylvania and Delaware, sitting in that body from 1774 to 1783. At one time he was both Chief Justice of Pennsylvania and President of Congress. He was at the head of the Supreme Court in Pennsylvania for twenty-two years. He died in Philadelphia in 1817, and was buried in the grounds of the Presbyterian church, on Market street.

SIMON SNYDER (1808-17) was born at Lancaster, and was the first of the German Governors of Pennsylvania. He was a tanner by trade, but of studious habits. At the age of 25 he engaged in the mercantile business at Selinsgrove, now Snyder county. He began his public career as justice of the peace. He helped to frame the Constitution of 1790, and after he entered the Legislature was chosen Speaker of the House for six successive terms. He was a candidate for Governor four times, being de-

feated the first time by a small majority and elected the other times by large majorities. He died in 1819, while a member of the Senate, and his body rests in Selinsgrove.

WILLIAM FINDLAY (1817-20), of Scotch-Irish descent, was born at Mercersburg, Franklin county. He began life as a farmer. After he was twenty-nine he was elected to the Legislature for a number of terms, and subsequently held the office of State Treasurer for ten years. After serving one term as Governor, he was elected United States Senator and served one term. He finished his public career as an official of the United States mint. Mr. Findlay died at Harrisburg in 1846, at the residence of his son-in-law, Governor Shunk, and was buried in that city.

JOSEPH HIESTER (1820-23) was a native of Bern township, Berks county, his father having emigrated from Germany. Joseph served his country most loyally in the Revolution. He raised a company at the very outbreak, and when the battalion was formed was appointed major. He was wounded and taken prisoner in the battle of Long Island, and was confined in a prison ship for a year. When exchanged, he was again wounded at Germantown. He received extensive training as a statesman in the Legislature, the constitutional convention of 1790, and Congress. He died in 1832, and is buried in the grounds of the German Reformed church of Reading.

JOHN ANDREW SHULZE (1823-29), born at Tulpehocken, Berks county, was the son of a German clergyman, and he himself had served as pastor of several Lutheran congregations in Berks county before his health demanded that he should engage in something else. He entered the mercantile business at Myerstown, then Dauphin county, and, becoming interested in politics, was elected to the Legislature. When the new county of Lebanon was organized, in 1813, he accepted an office in it, which he held for eight years. After that, he again entered the Legislature, serving in both houses. At the end of his second term, he engaged in agricultural pursuits, but before his death he removed to Lancaster, where he died in 1852.

GEORGE WOLF (1829-35) was a native of Allen township, Northampton county, but his father had been born in Germany. George received a classical and a legal education, and was well prepared for the important duties of his life. He studied law while he was principal of an academy, and rose rapidly in public favor. Having been a clerk in a county office before he was of age, it is not surprising that he had been postmaster of Easton, clerk of the orphans' court and member of the Legislature before he was forty. In 1824 he was elected to Congress, and served in that body till elected Governor, in 1829. After serving in the gubernatorial chair for six years and writing his name indelibly upon the pages of Pennsylvania's history, he entered the service of the United States in

the capacity first of Controller of the Treasury and afterwards of Collector of the Port in Philadelphia, in which city he died in 1840. His remains were buried in Harrisburg, the scene of his great services in behalf of his beloved State. Governor Wolf was a man of the people and always mindful of their best interests. He was the first executive to have his office in the Capitol; his predecessors had used a room in their private residence for that purpose, much to the annoyance of those who were not accustomed to servants in waiting, stationed at every turn.

JOSEPH RITNER (December 15, 1835–January 15, 1839) was the third Governor born in Berks county. His father was a German farmer and, like most farmer boys of his day, Joseph received but a meager education. When a young man, he removed to Washington county, where he engaged in farming. By the force of his mental vigor, he soon proved himself a useful man in his new home, and the people honored him with a seat in the Legislature. He served six years and rose to the position of Speaker. As the successor of Wolf, he became the guardian of a precious legacy—the common school law; and he handed it down to posterity without the loss of one jot or tittle. At the end of his career as Governor, Ritner retired to a farm near Mount Rock, Cumberland county, where he died at the ripe old age of eighty-nine. President Taylor, in 1848, appointed him Director of the Mint at Philadelphia, but a favorite of Fillmore succeeded to the office soon afterwards. The following are the opening lines of a poem by Whittier on Ritner's message of 1836:

“Thank God for the token! one lip is still free,—
One spirit untrammelled,—unbending one knee!”

DAVID RITTENHOUSE PORTER (1839–45), whose paternal ancestors had come from Ireland, was born in Montgomery county, near Norristown. Andrew, his father, was an officer in the Revolutionary army and was once offered a position in Madison's Cabinet. Horace Porter, son of the Governor, distinguished himself in the Rebellion and was appointed Minister to France by President McKinley. David received a classical education and, while assisting his father, who was Surveyor-General, studied law; but his health demanded a more active occupation. He therefore engaged in the manufacture of iron in Huntingdon county. After representing his adopted county in the Legislature, both as Representative and Senator, he was elected Governor and served two terms. He died at Harrisburg in 1867, and was buried there.

FRANCIS RAWN SHUNK (1845–48) was of German descent and a native of Montgomery county, having been born near the Trappe, in the same year with Governor Porter, 1788. At the early age of fifteen he began to teach, and when a young man he was appointed clerk in the Surveyor-General's office by Governor Porter's father. In 1814 he shouldered the musket in defense of Baltimore against the British. At the age of twenty-eight he began the practice of law and became interested in politics. He

was clerk of the House of Representatives for several years and secretary to the Canal Commissioners. In 1842 he removed to Pittsburgh and practiced his profession. About six months before his term as Governor had expired, he was forced to resign on account of shattered health. He died July 30, 1848, and his dust reposes with that of his kindred, at the Trappe, his native place.

WILLIAM FREAME JOHNSTON (1848-1852), whose father was Scotch-Irish, was born at Greensburg, Westmoreland county, 1808. He received a common school and academic education, studied law and began the practice of his profession in Armstrong county. He soon rose to prominence and became district attorney. He next represented his county in the House, and later, his district in the Senate. In the financial crisis of 1837, he proposed a measure of relief in the Legislature, whose salutary effects made him very popular. After his term as Governor, he was engaged in the manufacture of iron and the production of coal and petroleum. He was appointed Collector of the Port at Philadelphia by President Johnson, but the Senate would not confirm him on account of its hostility to the administration. He died at Pittsburg in 1872, and was buried there.

WILLIAM BIGLER (1852-55) was born of German parents, at Shermansburg, Cumberland county. While William was quite young, the family removed to Mercer county, where the father died and left them struggling on on a small backwoods farm. It would have been a great solace in his dying hour if he could have seen the future of two of his sons, one of whom, John, became Governor of California, and the other, William, Governor of Pennsylvania. Burdened with the support of their widowed mother, the boys had to be content with a meager schooling. William learned the printing trade, and was employed for several years by his brother John, in the office of the *Centre Democrat*, published at Bellefonte. Andrew G. Curtin, afterwards Governor, influenced William to commence the publication of a political paper at Clearfield. Under many misgivings, he founded the *Clearfield Democrat*, and laid the foundation of his political career. Disposing of his paper, he went into the lumber business and became the foremost lumber merchant on the West Branch. He was elected to the State Senate in 1841, and in his own county received every vote cast but one. He was elected Speaker twice, and reelected to the Senate twice. His great service in the Legislature was rendered in advocating the bill giving the right of way for the construction of the Pennsylvania Central railroad. A great effort was made then to connect Philadelphia and Pittsburg by means of the Baltimore and Ohio railroad, through Delaware, Maryland, Virginia and the western counties of Pennsylvania, instead of by a direct route across the Alleghenies. After his retirement from the Governor's office, he became president of the Philadelphia and Erie Railroad Company, and represented the State one term in the United States

Senate. At the close of his public life, he devoted himself to his business affairs and to the welfare of his town—Clearfield—where he died and was buried in 1880.

JAMES POLLOCK (1855-58), whose ancestors emigrated from the north of Ireland and settled in Chester county, was born at Milton, Northumberland county, 1810. He was educated at the academy of his native town and at Princeton College. His scholarly attainments secured him the degree of LL.D. from his alma mater and from Jefferson College. Soon after being admitted to the bar, he was elected district attorney of Northumberland county. He represented his district in Congress from 1843 to 1849, and was then appointed president judge of the district including Northumberland. After the expiration of his official term, Governor Pollock resumed the practice of law at Milton. He bore a prominent part in the convention at Washington, between the North and South, in 1860, to prevent an appeal to arms for the settlement of the strife between the two sections. He was Director of the Mint at Philadelphia from 1861 to 1866, and was instrumental in getting the motto, "In God we trust," placed upon the coins. He received the same appointment again under Grant's administration. Mr. Pollock remained an honored and respected citizen until his death, which occurred in Lock Haven, in 1890. His remains are interred in the Milton cemetery.

WILLIAM FISHER PACKER (1858-61), of Quaker ancestry, was born in 1807, in Howard township, Centre county, his father having removed from Chester county. Like his predecessors, Pollock and Bigler, William was left fatherless when a child, and had to encounter the hardships of life early. He learned the art of printing before he was fifteen, but, after working at the trade for a few years, studied law at Williamsport. However, he never applied for admission to the bar. Instead, he bought an interest in the *Williamsport Gazette*, and later helped to establish the *Keystone*, a Democratic paper at Harrisburg. He served on the Board of Canal Commissioners, was Auditor-General, and a member of the House and Senate before he became Governor. While in the Legislature, he took the leading part in passing the bill to incorporate the company that built the Northern Central railroad above Harrisburg. At the close of his term as Governor, Mr. Packer, owing to declining health, retired to his home in Williamsport, where he died and was laid to rest in 1870.

ANDREW GREGG CURTIN (1861-1867) was born, 1817, in Bellefonte, Centre county. His father was a native of Ireland, one of the first iron manufacturers in central Pennsylvania, and a man of liberal education and great prominence. Andrew was educated in private schools at Bellefonte and Harrisburg, and in the academy at Milton. He read law at home, and took a course at Dickinson College. He commenced the practice in 1839, and at once took high rank in his profession. He entered the political

arena to win. After helping Harrison and Clay and Taylor in their Presidential contests, his first prize came in the form of Secretary of the Commonwealth and Superintendent of Common Schools, under Pollock. As School Superintendent, he labored hard to enable the law establishing the county superintendency to take root in public opinion. Governor Curtin was called to rule the State at the most critical period of its history; but he was equal to the occasion, and fulfilled every expectation that his inaugural address of 1861 had aroused in the minds of the people. So arduous were his duties that, at the end of his first term, his health demanded a change, and in November, 1864, he sailed for Cuba, to spend the winter months there. In 1868, he was a prominent candidate for Vice-President on the ticket with Grant, and when the latter had been elected President, he made Curtin Minister to Russia, a position he held till 1872. Pennsylvania's "War Governor" will always be held in the dearest remembrance. He devoted every moment of his time, every thought of his mind, and every fiber of his strength, to the success of the Union army and the welfare of the boys from Pennsylvania who fought in that army. Yea, more! From the time of that cold Thanksgiving morning when the two waifs, begging at his house in Harrisburg, told him their father had been killed in battle, his great heart also had a place for the soldiers' orphans. After retiring from public life, Mr. Curtin resided in Bellefonte until his death, in 1894. His remains rest in Union Cemetery.

JOHN WHITE GEARY (1867-73), of Scotch-Irish descent, was born near Mount Pleasant, Westmoreland county, 1819. Before he had graduated at Jefferson College, his father died and he had to teach school to finish his course. After a brief experience as a merchant's clerk in Pittsburg, he became a civil engineer. When the Mexican war broke out, his career as a soldier began with the appointment of lieutenant-colonel. Having won distinction at Chapultepec, Geary was made Colonel, and first commander



James Buchanan.

of the city of Mexico after its capture. Later, when the conquests of the war had been put under the control of the United States, Colonel Geary was made postmaster of San Francisco, then alcalde of the city, and finally its first mayor. Upon his return to Pennsylvania, he lived on his farm in Westmoreland county until 1856, when he was made Governor of the Territory of Kansas. He found the anti-slavery and pro-slavery parties arrayed in arms against each other; but he disbanded their armies and sent them home. Under his course, the cause of slavery would have been crushed in Kansas then, but he resigned when Buchanan was elected, because he felt that he was no longer wanted. Early in 1861, he raised the 28th Pennsylvania regiment and rose to the

rank of brigadier-general. His command won glory at Fredericksburg, Chancellorsville, Gettysburg, Lookout Mountain, and in Sherman's march to the sea. After the capture of Savannah, General Geary was made Military Governor. His ripe experience and patriotic services made him a great favorite for Governor of Pennsylvania in 1866. His second term expired January 21, 1873, and he died suddenly on the 8th of the following month, at the Capital city, where he was buried.

JOHN FREDERICK HARTRANFT (1873-79) was born in New Hanover township, Montgomery county, in 1830. As his name indicates, he was of German descent. Preparing for college at Treemount Seminary, Norristown, and taking the freshman year at Marshall College, Mercersburg, he graduated at Union College, Schenectady, in 1853. He read law, and was admitted to the bar at Norristown in 1859. Two years later, the young lawyer raised the 4th Pennsylvania regiment and helped to fight the battle of Bull Run, as a member of General Franklin's staff, the three months' enlistment of his regiment having expired the day before. He then organized the 51st regiment, led the famous charge that carried the stone bridge at Antietam, participated in all the engagements of the 9th corps, including Vicksburg; was made brigadier-general in 1864, gallantly recaptured Fort Steadman, and was breveted major-general. After the war, he served as Auditor-General of the State two terms. When he retired from the Governorship, he was made major-general of the National Guard, and served successively as Postmaster and Collector of the Port, in Philadelphia. He died at Norristown, in 1889, and his body rests by the banks of the Schuylkill. An equestrian statue has been erected to his memory on the Capitol grounds in Harrisburg.

HENRY MARTIN HOYT (1879-83), a descendant of an old New England family, was born at Kingston, Luzerne county, in 1830. He worked upon his father's farm until he was grown. Then he prepared for college and entered Lafayette, but finished his education at Williams College, Mass., in 1849. He was a teacher in a high school at Towanda and in Wyoming Seminary at Kingston. He was admitted to the bar at Wilkes-Barre, in 1853. At the outbreak of the civil war he helped to raise the 52d regiment, and was made lieutenant-colonel. For meritorious service he was mustered out at the close of the war as brevet brigadier-general. He served as Judge in the courts of Luzerne and as Internal Revenue Collector before he became Governor. When he left Harrisburg he practiced law in Philadelphia and Luzerne, and gained no little reputation as a historian and political economist. He died in Wilkes-Barre in 1892, and is buried there.

ROBERT EMORY PATTISON (1883-87 and 1891-95), whose ancestors dwelt across Mason and Dixon's Line, is the son of a prominent Methodist clergyman, and was born at Quantico, Som-

erset county, Maryland, in 1850. The father removing to Philadelphia, Robert was educated in the public schools of that city, graduating as the valedictorian of his class in the Central High School. He was admitted to the bar in 1872, and five years later was elected City Controller, an office which his valuable services enabled him to hold for two terms, though he did not belong to the ruling party. On the strength of the popularity thus acquired, he was nominated and elected Governor in 1882, the youngest that the State has ever had, being but thirty-two years old. Having spent four years as a private citizen, he was again elected Governor. Since his retirement in 1895, he has been living in Philadelphia.

JAMES ADAMS BEAVER (1887-91), whose forefathers came from the Palatinate, in Germany, was born at Millerstown, Perry county, in 1837. He was prepared for college at Pine Grove Mills Academy, Centre county, and graduated at Jefferson College, Canonsburg, in 1856. He studied law at Bellefonte and began his professional career there. When the civil war commenced, he entered the army as first lieutenant of the Bellefonte Fencibles. He rose to be lieutenant-colonel of the 45th regiment, colonel of the 148th, a regiment mostly recruited in his own county, and, for distinguished conduct at Cold Harbor, to that of brevet brigadier-general. He was several times wounded and spent weary weeks in the hospital. At Ream's Station, where he lost his leg, he joined his regiment when he had barely recovered from a ghastly wound in his side, received in the first assault upon Petersburg. Mr. Beaver became a prominent lawyer and business man after the war, earnest in every duty and greatly devoted to religion and education. In 1895 he was appointed one of the judges of the Superior Court.

DANIEL HARTMAN HASTINGS (1895-99) was born in Lamar township, Clinton county, in 1849. His father was a native of Ireland, and his mother, of Scotland. Daniel passed his boyhood days on a farm, attended the public schools, and before he was fifteen years of age taught a school in his own neighborhood. In 1867 he had attained such standing as a teacher that he went to Bellefonte to take charge of the academy at that place. He next became principal of the public schools of Bellefonte, filling the position for seven years and improving himself by private study at the same time. After editing the *Bellefonte Republican*, he read law and was admitted to the bar in 1875. He subsequently became interested in coal mining in Cambria county. It was while on business at Hastings, of that county, that the memorable flood occurred at Johnstown. Being Adjutant-General of the State, he made it his duty to assume control of the great work of relief extended to the sufferers, and won high praises for his services. He was a candidate for Governor in 1890, but was defeated in the convention by twelve votes.

WILLIAM ALEXIS STONE (1899-1903), of New England and Pennsylvania German descent, was born in Delmar township, Tioga county, 1846. His early life was spent on his father's farm. He was educated at the State Normal School in Mansfield. He joined the army before he was eighteen years old, as a private in the 187th regiment, and participated in the siege of Petersburg. He was several times promoted and was advanced to the grade of second lieutenant in 1865. After the war, Governor Hartranft appointed him assistant adjutant-general of the Thirteenth division, National Guard, with the rank of lieutenant-colonel. He studied law and was admitted to the bar in 1870, first practicing in Wellsboro and later in Pittsburg, where he served as United States District Attorney for the Western district of Pennsylvania. Before becoming Governor, Mr. Stone served as a member of Congress for eight years.

OTHER HISTORICAL PERSONS

WILLIAM ALLEN, of Philadelphia, was Chief Justice of Pennsylvania from 1750 to 1774. He aided Benjamin West, and coöperated with Dr. Franklin in founding the College of Philadelphia. He bought the land for the State House and paid for it with his own money. He believed in the cause of the colonies, but not in revolution or independence. He went to England in 1774, and there advocated a plan for restoring harmony. His sons agreed with him in sentiment, and all were on both sides of the contest at one time or another. Andrew was on the Council of Safety and in the Continental Congress, but deserted the cause in 1776, and his estate was confiscated. William was with Montgomery at Quebec, but in 1778 raised the regiment of Pennsylvania Loyalists. James took no part, but remained quiet in the country.

JOHN ARMSTRONG, of Carlisle, after his daring achievement at Kittanning, was of continued service to the frontier settlements during the French and Indian war, and in the Revolution he rose to be a major-general. He was at Fort Moultrie, and commanded the militia at Brandywine and Germantown. He served twice in the Continental Congress.

JACK ARMSTRONG, known as "Captain Jack," the "black hunter," the "black rifle," the "wild hunter of the Juniata," the "black hunter of the forest," was from Cumberland county. He entered the wilds of the Juniata, built himself a cabin and lived by hunting and fishing. One evening when he returned from his sports, he found his wife and children murdered and his cabin burned. From that time on he forsook civilized life, lived in caves, and protected the frontier settlers from the Indians, asking no reward but the gratitude of those whom he rescued. "Jack's Narrows," a narrow passage of the Juniata through Jack's mountain, below Huntingdon, was named after him.

JOHN JAMES AUDUBON was a worthy successor of Alexander Wilson in bird-lore. Though born in Louisiana, he spent a number of years in Pennsylvania. His father, in 1798, had bought him the Millgrove farm on the Perkiomen, near Schuylkill Falls. Here he married the daughter of an Englishman, who was his neighbor. Though he had previously formed a passion for birds, it was on this farm, where he had much leisure, that he pored over the idea of a great work on ornithology. He sold his place in 1810 and with the proceeds sailed down the Ohio, with his wife and child, on a bird sketching expedition. He spent years in American woods. In 1824 he went to Philadelphia, where he met Charles Lucien Bonaparte, who encouraged him to publish the results of his researches. After two years more of exploration, he went to England to get subscribers for his work on "The Birds of America." He revisited America three times to make further researches, and died in 1851.

BENJAMIN FRANKLIN BACHE was born in Philadelphia in 1769. His father had come from England, and married Sarah, the only daughter of Benjamin Franklin. The lad accompanied his grandfather, Dr. Franklin, to Paris, pursued his studies there and acquired a knowledge of printing. On his return to Philadelphia he graduated at the College of Philadelphia, and in 1790 published the first number of the *General Advertiser*, whose name was afterwards changed to the *Aurora and General Advertiser*. This paper became an ardent champion of the French Republic, and represented the anti-Federal party. Bache died of yellow fever in 1798.

JOHN BARTRAM, born in what is now Delaware county, in 1699, was the father of American botany. He established a botanical garden—the first ever attempted on this side of the Atlantic—on the west bank of the Schuylkill, a little below Philadelphia, near Grey's Ferry. His mind was probably directed to a serious study of botany by James Logan. By the aid of friends Bartram was enabled to travel and gather specimens, many of which were sent to Europe and eagerly studied there. His son William devoted himself to the same pursuit, and, being a single person, he traveled extensively, and on his return lived a life of seclusion at the old homestead.

EDWARD BIDDLE was born in Philadelphia, and served as an officer in the French and Indian war. He then became eminent as a lawyer in Reading. He entered the Assembly before the Revolution, became its Speaker, and was a member of the first Continental Congress. He was also a member of Congress in 1776, and one of the foremost advocates of independence, but could not attend the sessions on account of a lingering disease, to which he succumbed in 1779.

NICHOLAS BIDDLE was born in Philadelphia in 1750. At the age of fifteen he was left with three other shipwrecked sailors

on an uninhabited island in the West Indies, and was not rescued for two months. He next entered the British navy; but soon resigned in order to join a Polar expedition. Horatio Nelson, the hero of Trafalgar, was on board the same vessel. At the outbreak of the Revolution Biddle was placed in charge of a vessel on the Delaware, but afterwards was sent to the Bahamas, where he made valuable captures. His next achievement was the capture of eleven vessels and several hundred men, on a cruise to the banks of Newfoundland. He had only one vessel with which to take these prizes and bring them back to Philadelphia. Biddle was now placed in command of the best ship of the navy and ordered to the West Indies. There, in 1778, he fell in with a British ship of superior armament, but would have won had not the magazine exploded and killed him and all his crew but four.

JAMES BIDDLE was a native of Philadelphia. He served in the war with Tripoli, and was taken prisoner. In the war of 1812 he was a lieutenant on the *Wasp* when she captured the *Frolic*. He was put in command of the prize, but both ships were captured and taken to Bermuda. After his exchange he commanded the *Hornet*, and was wounded in the capture of the British *Penquin*. Besides a gold medal, Congress gave him the rank of captain.

JEREMIAH SULLIVAN BLACK was born in the Glades, Somerset county, and was educated in a log school-house near his father's farm. He studied law and settled at York. At the early age of thirty-two he was elevated to the bench, reaching the Supreme Court of Pennsylvania nine years later, and serving in it eighteen years. He became Attorney-General in Buchanan's administration, and towards its close was transferred to the position of Secretary of State. Upon his retirement from office, in 1861, he resumed the practice of law at York.

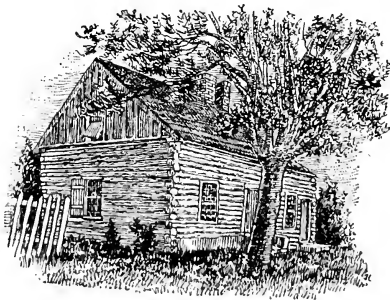
HUGH HENRY BRACKENRIDGE came to America from Scotland at the age of five and settled, with the rest of the family, in York county. He graduated at Princeton by teaching school at intervals and tutoring at college. He thought nothing of walking twenty or thirty miles to get the loan of a book or newspaper. He taught school after graduation, and early evinced his ability as a writer. In 1776 he went to Philadelphia and edited the *United States Magazine*. He was licensed to preach, and served as chaplain in the Revolutionary army; but he studied law and settled in Pittsburg. Here he distinguished himself as a lawyer, a politician, a judge, and a writer. Brackenridge was mixed up to some extent with the Whisky Insurrection, and he published an account of it. He was Judge of the Supreme Court of Pennsylvania from 1799 to 1816. His chief work as an author is "Modern Chivalry," in which he gives an admirable picture of society in western Pennsylvania at the close of the eighteenth century.

WILLIAM BRADFORD was one of the Quakers who, in

1682, landed in the woods where Philadelphia now stands. He was the first printer in the Province, but after a time was charged with printing seditious writings, though not convicted. However, he had become obnoxious to the settlers and went to New York, where, in 1725, he started its first newspaper, *The New York Gazette*. For thirty years he was the only printer in the colony of New York. His son Andrew, born in Philadelphia in 1686, was the only printer in Pennsylvania till about 1725, and he started, on December 22, 1719, the third newspaper in the colonies and the first in Philadelphia, the *American Weekly Mercury*. He also had a book store, and was postmaster of the city for a time.

SAMUEL BRADY was born in Shippensburg, and removed with his father to Union county, where he became a typical frontiersman. He joined the Revolutionary army at Boston when but seventeen, and at the battle of Monmouth won the rank of captain. Like Van Campen, he was now selected to fight the Indians, and was stationed at Fort Pitt. In this capacity he won a reputation for skill and daring that was not surpassed in all America. He hunted and killed Indians like game in the forest. He shot one Indian off a horse while the savage was carrying away a woman and her child; he killed three others while they were sitting on a log planning how to make sure of his scalp; and he escaped from death at the stake by pushing a squaw with a papoose on her back into the fire that had been kindled for him.

CHARLES BROCKDEN BROWN was born in Philadelphia in 1771, having descended from those who came to Pennsylvania in the good ship *Welcome*. He was the first American of note who made literature a profession. He established the *Literary Magazine and American Register* in 1803; but discontinued it at the end of five years. Two of his novels, "Arthur Mervyn" and



Birthplace of James Buchanan.

"Edgar Huntley," attained to the rank of standard romance; but most of them have long since been forgotten, though they were read with avidity in his day. Brown lived in humble circumstances, in a "low, two-story brick house, standing a little in from the street, with never a tree or a shrub near it." He died in 1810.

JAMES BUCHANAN, fifteenth President of the United States, was born at "Stony Batter," near Mercersburg, Franklin county, April 23, 1791. He was the son of a Scotch-Irish trader, and was educated

at Dickinson College. He began the practice of law in Lancaster, 1812, and soon entered the Legislature. For ten years from 1821, he was a member of Congress. After serving as Minister to Russia one year, he entered the United States Senate in 1834, and continued in that body till he was made Secretary of State by President Polk. In this position he had to settle the questions of "54° 40 or fight," of the acquisition of Texas, and of the Mexican war. Pierce sent him to England as Minister, and he was present at the Ostend conference, which was to bring about the sale of Cuba to the United States. In 1856 he was elected President, receiving besides the vote of several Northern States that of every slaveholding State except Maryland. Towards the close of his term, especially after Lincoln's election, the slave power made his administration most difficult, and his so-called "temporizing policy" was severely criticised. After his career in the White House he lived in retirement on his estate near Lancaster, known as Wheatland. Here he died June 1, 1868.

THOMAS H. BURROWES, a native of Lancaster county, was educated at Quebec and in Trinity College, Ireland. He became a lawyer and practiced his profession in Lancaster. After serving in the Legislature, he was appointed Secretary of the Commonwealth by Governor Ritner, in 1835, and as such was *ex-officio* Superintendent of Common Schools, and entrusted with the execution of the free school law passed the year before. His hand fashioned much of the school legislation between 1836 and the end of his second term as Superintendent of Common Schools, in 1863. Thus this man, who confessed in 1836 that he "knew no more about the details of schools than about the local geography of the moon," became a pillar in the structure of public education in Pennsylvania.

ZEBULON BUTLER was born in Connecticut, and was a member of the committee of three under whose direction the first successful settlement was made in the Wyoming valley by the New Englanders. He was one of the judges while the valley was attached to Connecticut as the town (township) of Westmoreland. He was an officer in the Revolution. Being home at the time of the Massacre of Wyoming, he was the leader of the settlers on that dreadful July day, 1778. He died in Luzerne county, 1795.

JOHN CADWALADER, of Welsh descent and born in Philadelphia, was commander of "The Silk Stocking Company" when the Revolutionary movement began, and at once entered the service of the army. He was made brigadier-general and placed in command of the Pennsylvania militia. He coöperated in the capture of the Hessians and was present as a volunteer at Brandywine, Germantown, and Monmouth. When the "Conway cabal" was formed, he challenged Thomas Conway to a duel and shot him in the mouth, but was himself unhurt.

SIMON CAMERON was a native of Lancaster county. He

worked at the printer's trade in his boyhood and youth, and edited a newspaper in Doylestown and at Harrisburg after he had become of age. He next became interested in banking and the construction of railroads, and soon acquired wealth. He was elected United States Senator by the Democrats in 1843; but after the repeal of the Missouri Compromise he became a Republican. In 1857 he was again elected Senator, and served till 1861, when Lincoln appointed him Secretary of War. Not agreeing with the President on the question of freeing and arming the slaves, Cameron resigned and accepted the post of Minister at St. Petersburg. He was once more elected Senator in 1867, and served continuously for ten years. He died in 1889.

ANDREW CARNEGIE came from Scotland at the age of ten years, his family settling in Allegheny. He began life there in a cotton factory, then became a messenger boy for a telegraph company and worked himself up to the position of superintendent. He made a fortune in oil, became interested in iron works, and soon was the largest manufacturer of iron, steel rails, and coke in the world. His public gifts, in the form of libraries to Pittsburg, Allegheny, and other places have been princely. His success in Pennsylvania was so gratifying to his admirers in Great Britain that a seat in Parliament was offered to him and the freedom of cities extended.

GEORGE CLYMER, whose name is affixed to the Declaration of Independence, was born in Philadelphia, and fell heir to the mercantile business of his uncle. When the opposition to English rule became active, he resolved to live as a freeman or perish as a patriot. He was chairman of Philadelphia's tea committee, Continental treasurer, member of the Council of Safety, and a delegate in Congress at various times after July 20, 1776. In this body he labored hard and took high rank. His family lived in Chester county, and when he visited them he did so only for a night at a time. After the Revolution Mr. Clymer entered the Assembly, where his greatest service was that performed in behalf of abolishing the death penalty in all but the most flagrant cases of crime. He was a member of the Constitutional Convention, and of the first Congress. After serving as Revenue Collector of Pennsylvania during the Whisky Rebellion, he retired to private life and died in 1813, at Morrisville, Bucks county.

JAY COOKE was born in Ohio, and entered a banking house in Philadelphia at the age of seventeen, becoming a partner when he arrived at his majority. He established the firm of Jay Cooke & Co. in 1861, and placed most of the loans of the United States during the Civil War. His success as the agent of the Government gave him the name of the "Financier of the Rebellion." The house prospered until it became the fiscal agent of the Northern Pacific Railroad Company. He failed September 19, 1873, "Black Friday," and precipitated the panic of that year. Though

Cooke lost his fortune, his character was unsullied. His magnificent mansion—Ogontz, named after an Indian chief who was his friend in childhood—is now “Ogontz Seminary for Young Ladies,” and is situated at Chelton Hills, Montgomery county.

MARGARET CORBIN was another heroine like “Mollie Pitcher.” She was wounded and utterly disabled at Fort Washington, while she heroically filled the post of her husband, who was killed by her side, serving a piece of artillery. Her name is found on the rolls of the Invalid Regiment of Pennsylvania, as it was discharged in 1783. She was born in Franklin county, and died in Westmoreland county about 1800.

TENCH COXE, born in Philadelphia and educated there, became a merchant at the age of twenty-one—in the year of the Declaration of Independence. He turned royalist and left the city to join the British. He returned with Howe and was arrested and paroled after the evacuation of the city. Then he turned Whig and entered upon a long political career. He sat in the Annapolis convention, in the Continental Congress, and held other high places; but veered from one side of party politics to another. His claims to a place in history lie in his labors for American manufactures and his writings on political economy. He may justly be called the father of the American cotton industry.

WILLIAM CRAMP was born in Kensington, now in Philadelphia. He began ship building on the Delaware in 1830, when he was but twenty-three years old. At first he built only barks and brigs, but he soon received orders for larger vessels. As his sons grew up and learned the business, he took them into partnership, under the name of William Cramp & Sons. The Civil War heralded them throughout the world as chiefs in their craft. It was then that the Delaware became known as the “Clyde of America.” “New Ironsides” was built for the Government in seven months after the order had been received. Foreign nations have had war vessels built at Kensington, and our own navy has received its finest marine warriors from the Cramps. William Cramp died in 1879.

GEORGE M. DALLAS, a lawyer of Philadelphia, mayor of that city, and district attorney, was United States Senator from 1831 to 1832, when he became Attorney-General of the State. For two years he held the post of Minister to Russia. Dallas was elected Vice-President on the ticket with Polk, in 1844. He was put on the ticket to hold the protectionist vote in Pennsylvania for Polk, as against Clay; but in spite of this he gave the casting vote in the Senate for the Walker Tariff of 1846. His last public office was that of Minister to England, under Buchanan’s administration.

STEPHEN DECATUR was born in Maryland while his father sojourned there on account of British occupation of Philadelphia. When the family returned in 1779, Stephen was three months old.

He began service in the navy in 1798. In 1804 he distinguished himself by destroying the *Philadelphia*, which had fallen into the hands of Tripoli. In the war of 1812 he captured the British ship *Macedonian*, and, after a stubborn fight, had to surrender the unseaworthy *President*. In 1815 he performed a most valuable service for his country by humbling the Barbary powers, with a squadron of ten vessels. He concluded a treaty by which tribute was abolished and prisoners and property restored, thus adding another jewel to the crown of the American navy. He ended his career in a duel with Commodore Barron in 1820.

WILLIAM DUANE was the successor of Bache (see p. 304) in the management of the *Aurora*. He was a native of the northern part of New York. When a lad of five, he was brought to Philadelphia by his widowed mother, but soon afterwards taken to Ireland, where he was educated and apprenticed to a printer. Coming back to Philadelphia in 1796, he was employed as one of the editors of the *Aurora*. After Bache's death, the paper was known for years as "Duane's paper" and was a powerful instrument in the organization and upbuilding of the Republican, or Democratic party.

REV. JACOB DUCHÉ was born in Philadelphia, and graduated at the college of that city, completing his studies in England. As rector of Christ Church, he was a man of great influence when the Revolution commenced. He was chaplain of Congress in 1776, and gave all his salary for the relief of soldiers' widows and orphans. But his loyalty to the American cause failed when the British took possession of Philadelphia. He helped to welcome them, and wrote a letter to Washington urging him to give up a hopeless struggle. The letter was laid before Congress, and Duché fled to England. He returned some time after the war, but his influence and position were gone.

JOHN ELDER, one of the first clergymen in the vicinity of Harrisburg, was a Presbyterian from Ireland, a graduate of the University of Edinburgh, a scholarly man and of varied ability. He was pastor of the congregation at Paxtang for nearly sixty years. During the troublesome times with the Indians, he was colonel of the Paxtang Rangers. He and the men of his congregation frequently carried their rifles with them to church, so constant was their danger from the savages. The graveyard at Paxtang, where Colonel Elder lies buried, and that at Derry Church, both in Dauphin county, are Meccas for the Scotch-Irish.

OLIVER EVANS was a native of Delaware, but early in life came to Philadelphia, where he made the first high-pressure steam engine and the first steam dredging machine used in this country. This machine was put on wheels and propelled itself to the Schuylkill river, where it was fitted with a steam paddle and navigated down the Schuylkill and up the Delaware a short dis-

tance. It is supposed to have been the first steam carriage on land in America. He urged the construction of railroads with rails of wood or iron, but had not the means to carry his ideas into execution.

JAMES EWING was a native of Lancaster county, but early in life settled in York. He was a lieutenant in Braddock's expedition, served with distinction through the whole of the Revolution, and rose to the rank of brigadier-general.

JOHN FENNO was a native of Boston. He established the *Gazette of the United States* in New York, when the Government under the Constitution began, and removed it to Philadelphia the next year in order to publish it at the capital of the nation. Fenno's paper became a strong advocate of the Federal party and bitterly opposed the "French faction" in the United States. He died of yellow fever in 1798, four days after the death of his political antagonist Bache, of the *Aurora*.

WILLIAM FINDLEY, a native of Ireland, came to Pennsylvania in early life, served in the Revolution, and settled in Westmoreland county, where he became active in politics. He was a member of the Legislature and of the State convention that adopted the Federal Constitution. This he actively opposed on the ground of its centralized power. He was eleven times elected to Congress, serving from 1791 to 1799 and from 1803 to 1817. He was an ardent supporter of the Jeffersonian party and was a great power as a speaker.

THOMAS FITZSIMMONS came to Philadelphia from Ireland and engaged in the mercantile business. He served in the Revolution as captain of a company, and his firm subscribed \$20,000 for the support of the army. He was a member of the Assembly for many years and a delegate in the Continental Congress from 1782-3. After his services in the Constitutional Convention in 1787, he served in the Federal Congress from 1789 to 1795.

JOHN WEISS FORNEY was born in Lancaster, in 1817, and learned the printer's trade. He went to Philadelphia and for a long time edited *The Pennsylvanian*. He was clerk of the House of Representatives at Washington, and while in that position edited the *Union*. In 1857 he began the *Philadelphia Press*, and continued to be its editor till 1877. Under his management the paper became a very powerful organ, receiving and inflicting many heavy blows. It was popularly known as "Forney's Press." In 1878, Colonel Forney established *Progress*, a weekly literary journal, modeled after the London *World*. He died in 1881, widely known and deeply mourned, having enjoyed the friendship of all the leading men of the nation during his long career as a journalist.

JOHN FITCH was born in Connecticut, and was a watchmaker

by trade. He made guns for the Continental Army, and was with the troops at Valley Forge. Robert Fulton is said to have had access to his drawings and papers, and it was proved by the courts, in 1817, that his inventions and those of Fitch were in substance the same. Fitch once said that the day would come "when some more potent man will get fame and riches *from my invention*, but nobody will believe that poor John Fitch can do anything worthy of attention." After his enterprise on the Delaware had failed he went to France, but the French Revolution prevented a renewal of his steam navigation there. He finally went to Kentucky, where he had some land. Becoming involved in law suits with intruders on his possessions there, he committed suicide in 1798.

ROBERT FULTON, the successful inventor of the steamboat, was born at Little Britain, Lancaster county, in 1765. He was



Robert Fulton.

at first a portrait painter, and at the age of twenty-one went to England. There he soon became interested in engineering and inventions. He next lived in France, where he invented the torpedo and vainly tried to get Napoleon, as well as the British Ministry, to adopt it. He returned to America in 1806, and the next year the Clermont steamed from New York to Albany. He was afterwards employed by the Government in projecting navigation schemes; but owing to lawsuits over his patents, he never amassed a fortune from his inventions, though they brought fortunes to other men, and were of the greatest importance in developing the interior of the United States. He died in New York in 1815.

ALBERT GALLATIN, who made a lasting mark on the surface of national politics, was born at Geneva, Switzerland, and became one of the most illustrious American statesmen. He was educated in the university of his native city and came to America in 1780, at the age of nineteen. After varied experiences he settled in Fayette county, where he founded New Geneva and established glass-works. He soon entered the Legislature, and in 1793 was elected United States Senator, but was not admitted to his seat on account of a question raised about the time of his citizenship. After his services as a mediator in the Whisky Insurrection, he entered Congress and distinguished himself in financial matters. From 1801 to 1813 he was Secretary of the Treasury, and made a record as one of the ablest American financiers. He was one of the commissioners that negotiated the treaty of Ghent, doing more than anyone else to close the war of 1812. Madison offered to make him Secretary of the Treasury once more, but he declined, and accepted the place of Minister to France,

which post he held seven years. In 1826 he was sent as Envoy Extraordinary to Great Britain. After retiring from political life, he engaged in banking in New York city, and died at Astoria, on Long Island, in 1849.

JOSEPH GALLOWAY was Speaker of the Pennsylvania Assembly from 1766 to 1774, and he proposed a form of government in the Provincial Congress favorable to the Crown. When the Howes issued their proclamation in 1776, granting amnesty to such Americans as would forsake their revolutionary course, Galloway's courage failed him and he turned Tory, together with the Allens, one of the most noted families in the Province.

"Galloway has fled and joined the venal Howe;
To prove his baseness, see him cringe and bow,
A traitor to his country and its laws,
A friend to tyrants and their cursed cause," etc.

His estates, with that of other Tories, were confiscated, and he went to England.

STEPHEN GIRARD was a descendant of a French seafaring family, living near Bordeaux. When a boy of eight he lost his right eye and a little later his mother. Doubly unfortunate, Stephen was anxious to escape from the surroundings of his youth. Receiving several thousand dollars from his father, he sailed as a cabin boy to Santo Domingo, made some money and formed a love for the sea. At the age of twenty-eight he sailed from Bordeaux as captain, never to return. Two years later, in 1776, he came to Philadelphia and stocked a small store with a cargo he had brought from the West Indies. He amassed a large fortune in foreign trade, his ships making voyages to Europe, India and China. He was very frugal in private life, but generous in public affairs. He worked in a hospital for several hours each day during the yellow fever epidemic, and staked his fortune to assist the country of his adoption in the war of 1812. He gave large sums to charity, and founded Girard College, which continually supports and educates some two thousand orphan boys within its walls.

DAVID M'MURTRIE GREGG was born in Huntingdon in 1833, graduated at West Point, and was assigned to the dragoons. After serving in several Indian campaigns, he entered the stern service of actual war in 1861. He began as first lieutenant in the cavalry and rose to be brevetted major-general of volunteers. He participated in most of the battles of the Army of the Potomac, and greatly distinguished himself as a commander of cavalry. His sterling qualities as a private citizen have been recognized on several occasions since the war. He was appointed Consul at Prague, Bohemia, in 1874, and was Auditor-General of the State from 1892 to 1895. He lives in Reading.

GALUSHA A. GROW came to Pennsylvania from Connecticut in 1847, at the age of twenty-three, and settled in Susquehanna county. He represented the "Wilmot district" in Congress

from 1851 to 1863, occupying the Speaker's chair during the trying time of 1861 to 1863. He then engaged in extensive business enterprises, being president of a railroad and residing for a while in Texas. He declined a nomination for Congress in 1879, but was a candidate for United States Senator in 1881, in a long, hard-contested struggle in the Legislature. He was then out of politics until 1894, when he was elected Congressman-at-large by the enormous majority of 188,000. He has been in Congress ever since—as tall and erect as in the days before the Civil War, when Keitt, of South Carolina, assaulted him on the floor of the House and got the worst of the encounter.

WINFIELD SCOTT HANCOCK was born in Montgomery county in 1824, and graduated from West Point at the age of twenty. He earned the title of veteran in the Mexican war by hard and gallant fighting, and held honorable positions in the regular army until the war of the Union broke out. Then he was summoned to Washington and made a brigadier-general in the Army of the Potomac. He was promoted to the rank of major-general, and by his magnificent bearing he won the soubriquet of "The Superb." His name was never mentioned as having committed a blunder in battle for which he was responsible. He was the Democratic candidate for President in 1880, but was defeated by James A. Garfield. He died in 1886, and is buried at Norristown.

JOHN HARRIS, the first permanent settler on the Susquehanna, was from Yorkshire, England, and came to Philadelphia some time before 1698. In 1705, he located on the Susquehanna as an Indian trader licensed by the province. He noticed the advantage of the location at the point where the Paxtang flows into the Susquehanna, and in 1825 established himself there permanently, buying a large tract of land including the lower part of the present site of Harrisburg. He acquired a powerful sway over the Indians by his courage and good judgment. On one occasion he refused rum to some drunken Indians, and they tied him to a mulberry tree on the river front and were going to burn him. He was released by some friendly Indians who came to the spot just as the others were kindling the fire. When he died, in 1748, his remains, by his own request, were buried at the foot of that tree. Its decayed trunk stood in Harris Park till 1889. The grave is enclosed with an iron fence. His son, John Harris, was the founder of Harrisburg, and a prominent man in the affairs of the province, especially in the Indian wars. In 1753 he got a charter to run a ferry across the Susquehanna, and the place became known as Harris' Ferry.

JOHN HAZLEWOOD was an Englishman by birth and came to Philadelphia as captain in the merchant marine. After he had been made commodore of the Pennsylvania navy, the Continental vessels in the Delaware were also put under his command. While

Lord Howe was with his fleet in Delaware bay, in 1777, he sent for Commodore Hazlewood and promised him His Majesty's pardon and kind treatment if he would surrender the Pennsylvania fleet. His only reply was that he would "defend the fleet to the last."

JOHN HECKEWELDER was born in England, and came to Pennsylvania with his parents when he was twelve years old. He became a Moravian missionary, and worked chiefly among the Delawares after they had been removed to the Ohio. He published his observations upon their language, habits and character. His views, which are very favorable to the Indians, have been warmly attacked and warmly defended. After laboring forty years among them, he went to Bethlehem, where he passed the remainder of his days in retirement.

FRANCIS HOPKINSON was a Philadelphian, a graduate of the University of Pennsylvania, and a lawyer by profession. After spending a few years in England, he settled in Bordentown, New Jersey, which State he represented in Congress when the Declaration of Independence was signed. He helped to draft the Articles of Confederation. He was also at the head of the Navy of the Revolution for a time. By his witty satires and popular poems and songs, he greatly aided the cause of liberty. He was Judge of the Admiralty for Pennsylvania from 1779 to 1789, and afterwards a United States District Judge.

JOSEPH HOPKINSON, son of Francis Hopkinson, of Revolutionary fame, was, like his father, a Philadelphian, a graduate of the University of Pennsylvania, a lawyer, a Congressman, and a United States District Judge. He is known in literature by a single brief production only, the patriotic song of Hail Columbia, which was encoered the first time it was sung, by an audience that was "mad as the priestess of the Doric God."

THOMAS HOVENDEN was Irish by birth and educated at the Cork School of Design. When a young man he came to America and studied art in New York. Later he went to Paris to study, and when he returned settled in Plymouth township, Montgomery county. He was a member of numerous art societies in Philadelphia and New York. He painted many famous pictures, but is best known to the world by "Breaking Home Ties." Many a silent tear was dropped at the World's Fair by the multitudes that daily stood looking at "Breaking Home Ties." What "Home, Sweet Home" is in song, "Breaking Home Ties" is on canvas. Hovenden's negro pictures, notably "The Last Moments of John Brown," were painted in the studio of an old barn that had once done service on the underground railway. "The Confederate in a Pennsylvania Farm House" was his noblest expression of the domestic incidents of the Union war. Hovenden lost his life while trying to rescue a child from death under a locomotive, near Norristown in 1895.

CHARLES HUMPHREYS, brother of Joshua the shipbuilder, was born at Haverford, now Montgomery county. For many years he was a successful miller. He was a member of the Assembly in 1764 and again in 1775. In the latter year he became a member of the Continental Congress; and, although he opposed the oppressive measures of Great Britain, he voted against the Declaration of Independence.

SAMUEL HUMPHREYS was a noted shipbuilder of Philadelphia. His father, Joshua, had been engaged there in the same occupation, and had designed and constructed the Constitution, the Chesapeake, the Congress, the President, and the United States. After the war of 1812, Samuel was asked to come to Russia to organize a navy, but declined, saying, "Whether my merit be great or small, I owe it all to the flag of my country, and that is a debt I must pay." Because he had designed, drafted, and constructed most of the ships launched at the port of Philadelphia, and thus had helped to make the American navy victorious over England—a victory which France, Spain and Holland had all failed to achieve—he was made Chief Naval Constructor of the United States. He held this distinguished place until he died, in 1846.

JARED INGERSOLL, born in Connecticut and educated at Yale, met Benjamin Franklin in Paris, and soon after commenced the practice of law in Philadelphia, where he rose to distinction. He was an ardent patriot during the Revolution, member of Congress in 1780–81, and so was well prepared for the great duty of his life—to help frame the Constitution. He held important State offices afterwards, and declined the appointment of Chief Justice of the Federal Court.

WILLIAM IRVINE was born in Ireland, and settled at Carlisle as a physician when he was twenty-one years old. In 1776 he raised a regiment and joined the army in Canada, where he was captured at the battle of Three Rivers. After his exchange in 1778, he was put in command of a Pennsylvania brigade at the battle of Monmouth, and remained its commander until 1781. He was then transferred to Pittsburg to guard the frontier, which was menaced by the British and Indians. While there he became interested in the northwestern section of the State, and it was largely through him that the State afterwards purchased "the triangle." To show its gratitude for his labors, the State donated him a tract of land on Lake Erie. General Irvine was a member of the Continental Congress two years and of the third Congress under the Constitution. His last service in the field was as senior major-general in command of the troops raised to suppress the Whisky Insurrection. The close of his life was spent in Philadelphia, where he held a Federal office. General Irvine had two brothers in the Revolution and three sons in the War of 1812.

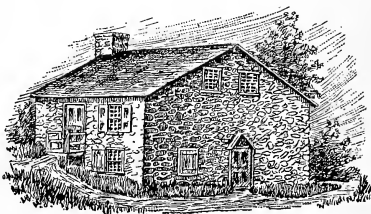
ELISHA KENT KANE was a native of Philadelphia, and a

graduate in medicine of the University of Pennsylvania. He served on the medical corps of the United States Navy, and thus cultivated a love for travel, which he gratified by visiting many parts of the world. He evinced his daring on the Philippine Islands by descending the crater of a volcano to its very bottom, charring his boots and becoming insensible from gas. In 1850, he joined the Arctic expedition sent out in search of Sir John Franklin. Upon the return of the expedition from its fruitless voyage, he organized one under his own command and set sail in 1853, taking as surgeon Dr. I. I. Hayes, of Chester county, who afterwards himself became a noted Arctic explorer. Though Franklin was not found, Dr. Kane's explorations and scientific observations were most valuable. He reduced to geographical certainty more than a thousand miles of coast line in Greenland.

JOHN KELLEY was born in Lancaster county, but became a frontiersman in Union county. In December, 1776, he joined Washington's army as major in the Northumberland battalion. After the battle at Princeton, when Cornwallis was close upon the heels of Washington's army, the commander-in-chief detached Kelley with a party of Pennsylvania troops to destroy a bridge on Stony creek, to prevent the advance of the enemy. Kelley cut the timbers with his own hand midst a rain of British balls. When the bridge fell, he went down with it into the floating ice, and made his way into camp the same night, not alone, but in company with a British soldier whom he had captured on the way. Kelley died at Lewisburg, where a monument was erected in his honor.

KIASHUTHA had his home on the broad bottom-lands just above Sharpsburg, Allegheny county, which still bear his name. He was one of the active and remarkable Indians of Pennsylvania. He appears to have been detailed by the Iroquois, as early as 1758, to watch the Delawares and Shawanese, then living at and near Fort Duquesne. He lent himself to the schemes of Pontiac and allied himself with the British in the Revolutionary war. Later, he again became the friend of the settlers, visited General Wayne, and tried to induce the western Indians to submit to the Government.

ABRAHAM LINCOLN was born in Amity township, Berks county, in 1736. He was a man of considerable influence in the General Assembly, in the Pennsylvania convention to ratify the Federal Constitution, and in the State convention which framed the Constitution of 1790. He died at his residence in Exeter township, in 1806. His father was



Home of Mordecai Lincoln.

Mordecai Lincoln, who had come to Berks county from Massachusetts, and died in Amity township in 1735. Mordecai had much property—some of which was in New Jersey, where he willed three hundred acres to his son John. This John Lincoln left New Jersey some years later, established himself in Virginia, and was the grandfather of the President. The Lincolns were closely allied to the ancestors of Daniel Boone, also of Berks county. Squire Boone, the father of Daniel, was one of the appraisers of Mordecai Lincoln's estate, and his "loving friend and neighbor;" while Abraham Lincoln, the subject of this sketch, was married to Anna Boone, a first cousin of Daniel.

LOGAN was the second son of Shikellimy, and was named after James Logan, the Indian's best friend after Penn had left the province. Logan lived for a long time near a large spring still bearing his name in the Kishacoquillas valley, six miles from Lewistown. Removing to the west in 1771, he located on the Ohio river some thirty miles above Wheeling. Here his whole family was murdered by some whites, in a drunken carousal. To avenge this foul deed, he ordered his chiefs to commit the most frightful barbarities among the whites. When he was asked to consent to a treaty of peace, he made a reply that schoolboys might well commit to memory. It opens with these words: "I appeal to any white man to say, if ever he entered Logan's cabin hungry, and he gave him not meat; if ever he came cold and naked and he clothed him not."

ALEXANDER KELLY McCLURE was a native of Sherman's valley, Perry county. He was a farmer's son, educated in the village school, and apprenticed to the tanner's trade. But when he had learned it he established the *Juniata Sentinel* at Mifflin. He next took charge of the *Chambersburg Repository*, and at the age of twenty-six became a lawyer. Having taken a very active part in State and National politics, he soon after entered the Legislature, and was chairman of the Senate Committee on Military Affairs in 1861-62. He was a close friend of Curtin and Lincoln, having done yeoman service for the election of both; he played a prominent part in Pennsylvania and the Nation during the Civil War. When the Confederates burned Chambersburg, he had scarcely time to get out of town before the invaders' torch was applied to all the property he had. In 1868 he went to Philadelphia, and after practicing law there and serving another term in the State Senate, he established the *Times*, in 1875, of which he has ever since been the editor. His close relations with Lincoln and other public men of the Civil War enabled him to write a valuable work, entitled "Lincoln and the Men of War Times."

GEORGE A. M'CALL was born in Philadelphia, graduated at West Point, and served in the Seminole and Mexican wars. President Taylor made him Inspector-General of the United States army, and in 1861 Governor Curtin appointed him major-general

of the Pennsylvania Reserves. He was with the Army of the Potomac until the battle of Frazier's Farm, where he was taken prisoner. After his exchange, his health made it necessary for him to resign. He died near West Chester in 1868.

GEORGE BRINTON M'CLELLAN was born in Philadelphia in 1826, and educated at the University of Pennsylvania and at West Point. He had just finished his military course when the Mexican war commenced. After it was over the Government sent him to Europe as an expert, to report the operations of the Crimean war. Upon his return, he was engaged by the Illinois Central Railroad as civil engineer, and afterwards became a railroad president. When the Civil War broke out he was appointed major-general and placed in command of Western Virginia, where he greatly distinguished himself. After the disaster at Bull Run, he was made commander of the Army of the Potomac, and soon after succeeded General Scott as commander-in-chief. In organizing the Army of the Potomac, he performed a most valuable service; but in his campaigns before Richmond, he disappointed the authorities at Washington, and was relieved of the command. Pope's disasters restored McClellan for two months, in which time he fought the battle of Antietam. When he was again removed and placed on waiting orders, he resigned from the army, in 1864. The same year he was the Democratic candidate for President, and received 21 electoral votes. He was Governor of New Jersey, 1878-1881, and died at South Orange, in that State, in 1885. "Little Mac" was very popular with the Army of the Potomac, in spite of criticism outside of it.

GEORGE GORDON MEADE was born in Cadiz, Spain, while his father was United States Consul there. Upon the return of the family to Philadelphia, George was educated in the public schools, and afterwards entered as a cadet at West Point. He served in the Indian war in Florida and in the Mexican war, and was promoted for brave conduct in battle. In 1861 he was made a brigadier-general in the Pennsylvania Reserves. The next year he rose to the rank of major-general, and after the battle of Chancellorsville was assigned to the command of the Army of the Potomac, which position he held until the close of the war. General Meade was highly honored by the people for his high character, his great military ability and the important part he took in the war of the Union. Philadelphia presented him a house, and after his death, in 1872, raised a fund of \$100,000 for his family.

WILLIAM M. MEREDITH, who for many years held the foremost rank in Pennsylvania as a lawyer, was born in Philadelphia. He helped to frame the Constitution of 1838 and that of 1873, being chairman of the convention that framed the latter. He became Secretary of the Treasury in 1849 and held the office until President Taylor's death. He was Governor Curtin's Attorney-General,

and was offered the position of counsel for the United States in the Geneva arbitration of the Alabama question. Pennsylvania has reason to be proud also of Samuel Meredith. The Merediths are Welsh. Samuel's father came from Wales and had the honor of entertaining Washington when the latter first came to Philadelphia—a young man unknown to greatness and to fame. The two accidentally met in a coffee-house, and Meredith made the young Virginian his guest while remaining in the city. Samuel, the son, was a prominent officer in the Revolution and for a long time afterwards was Treasurer of the United States. He was a partner in business with George Clymer, and the firm contributed liberally to the cause of liberty. About 1800 they invested largely in lands in northeastern Pennsylvania. Meredith built himself a mansion at Belmont, near Pleasant Mount, Wayne county, where he died in 1817. He lies buried in a neglected grave.

GOUVERNEUR MORRIS came to Pennsylvania in 1778, as a delegate from New York to the Continental Congress, then in session at York. He became a citizen of Pennsylvania, and practiced law in Philadelphia. He was Assistant Superintendent of Finances under Robert Morris, delegate from Pennsylvania to the Constitutional Convention, and Minister to France. After his return from Europe, he again lived in New York, where he died in 1816.

ROBERT MORRIS, the financier of the Revolution, emigrated from Liverpool to Philadelphia when he was a boy, and served as a clerk for the Willings—the rich merchant firm of which he was afterwards a member. He rescued Congress repeatedly from financial crises, by borrowing money on his own and his firm's credit. The \$1,500,000 for Washington's campaign against Cornwallis was raised by his exertions and on his own notes. From 1781 to 1784 he was Superintendent of Finance, and on several occasions kept the new nation from going into bankruptcy. When the Constitutional government, which he helped to form, went into effect, he was elected United States Senator. He was urged to become Secretary of the Treasury, but he refused, and suggested Hamilton. In his later years he was unsuccessful in business, lost his fortune, and was at one time imprisoned for debt. Thus the man who once had owned the most magnificent home in the city of Philadelphia died in comparative poverty.

JOHN MORTON was of Swedish ancestry and was born in Ridley township, Chester county (now Delaware). His education was very limited, but his talents were great. He was a surveyor and a farmer until he became engrossed in public business. He was justice of the peace, sheriff, common pleas and supreme judge, member and Speaker of the Assembly, delegate to the Stamp Act Congress, to the first Continental Congress and to the second. His last year in Congress was the most important part of his life; for he was called on to decide whether to vote for the Declaration of

Independence or against it. He chose the wiser course and voted for it. He died in April, 1777, at the age of fifty-four, and lies buried at St. James church, in Chester. To those who could not forgive him for his vote in favor of independence, he said in his dying hour: "Tell them they will live to see the hour when they shall acknowledge it to have been the most glorious service I ever rendered to my country."

LUCRETIA MOTT, a native of Massachusetts and the wife of James Mott, began her career in Pennsylvania as a school teacher in Philadelphia. Soon after she became a preacher in the Society of Friends. She made a tour through New England and the Middle States, preaching and denouncing slavery and intemperance. She was one of the founders of the American Anti-slavery Society, in 1833. She was a delegate to the World's Anti-slavery convention, held in London, 1840, but was excluded because she was a woman. Her exclusion increased the woman's suffrage agitation, in which she now became a leader. She took part in the first woman's rights convention, in 1848. She remained active in the cause of anti-slavery and woman's rights to the end of her long life, in 1880.

HEINRICH MELCHIOR MÜHLENBERG was born in Germany in 1711. He was a graduate of Göttingen and a man of great scholarship and culture. He had intended to become a missionary in Bengal, but received a call from Pennsylvania to labor among the destitute Lutheran population, which had been much neglected. He labored hard in his pastoral charge of Philadelphia, New Hanover and Providence, and preached in many other places, making long journeys and gaining a wide acquaintance. He was also instrumental in bringing other educated ministers from Germany into the province, thus laying a deep and broad foundation for the Lutheran Church. During the Revolution he was an ardent patriot, and through his great influence did much for the cause of liberty. He was so outspoken that his life was often in peril. At his death, which occurred in 1787, there was deep and widespread sorrow, which found expression in tolling bells, churches draped in mourning and the preaching of many funeral sermons.

JOHN PETER GABRIEL MÜHLENBERG, son of Heinrich Melchior, was born in Montgomery county, and educated at Halle, Germany. He studied for the ministry and preached at Woodstock, Virginia, when the Revolution broke out. He showed his partiality for a soldier's life while in Germany, for he ran away from the university and joined the dragoons. It was not surprising that he told his congregation in Virginia one Sunday that there was a time to fight and a time to preach. At the close of the service he tore off his gown, showing himself in full uniform, and reading his commission as colonel. He invited the men of his congregation to follow his example, and they did almost to a man. He did valiant service for the cause of liberty, and retired at the close of the war with the rank of major-general, having partici-

pated in nearly all the campaigns in New Jersey, Pennsylvania and Virginia, as well as at Stony Point and Charleston. Soon after he returned to Pennsylvania, where he was elected to the Executive Council and both houses of Congress. He closed his public career as Collector of the Port at Philadelphia. He and Robert Fulton are Pennsylvania's representatives in Statuary Hall of the National Capitol.

FREDERICK AUGUSTUS MÜHLENBERG, son of Heinrich Melchior, was born in Montgomery county, educated at Halle, Germany, and preached for a time in New York city. He represented Pennsylvania in the Continental Congress in 1778 and 1780, and was president of the convention that ratified the Constitution of the United States. When the new government was organized in 1789, Frederick A. Muhlenberg was chosen Speaker of the first House of Representatives. He was also Speaker of the third Congress.

GOTTHILF HEINRICH MÜHLENBERG was another son of Heinrich Melchior. He, too, was educated at the University of Halle, which he entered at the age of ten and attended for seven years. Then he traveled in Germany and England. When he returned to America he was ordained as a minister and assisted his father in the church in Philadelphia. When the British took possession of the city he retired to the country, where he devoted himself to his favorite study—botany—and acquired a world-wide reputation as a botanist.

LINDLEY MURRAY, of Quaker descent, was born on the Swatara, within the present limits of Dauphin county, in 1745. He resided in England the greater part of his life; but his school books were republished in this country, numerous editions being brought out in Philadelphia. They soon displaced the text-books of other authors in Pennsylvania, notably those of Noah Webster, which had been so largely used.

JOHN NEVILLE was a native of Virginia, served with Braddock and through the Revolution. Becoming a citizen of Allegheny county, he held several important civil offices. In 1791, when the excise law was passed, President Washington appointed him inspector for western Pennsylvania, hoping that his great popularity would allay the opposition to the law in that section.

ISAAC NORRIS was a very influential Quaker of Philadelphia. Isaac, his father, was likewise a prominent man in the Province, and lived in great luxury in a mansion at Fair Hill. Isaac, the son, acquired a large fortune in addition to what he inherited. He became a member of the Assembly in 1734, and was Speaker of that body for fifteen years after 1751. Norris proposed the inscription "Proclaim liberty throughout the land unto all the inhabitants thereof," on the State House bell, which was ordered from England the first year he was Speaker. He was a strict

Quaker, and defended the peace policy of the province whenever wars broke out. His followers, in opposition to the war party, were called the "Norris party."

THOMAS PAINE, familiarly called Tom Paine, came to Philadelphia from England, where he had been an exciseman and a political writer. He came here at the opening of the Revolution and edited the *Pennsylvania Magazine*. Besides his *Common Sense*, he published the *Crisis*, which appeared at intervals during the war. His services as a writer were of great value to the American cause. After the formation of the State, he was clerk in the Legislature. When the French Revolution broke out, he was first in France and then in England. Being outlawed by the English on account of his "Rights of Man," he returned to France, was elected to the convention, imprisoned by the Jacobins, and wrote his "Age of Reason." He returned to the United States, and died in New York in 1809.

FRANCIS DANIEL PASTORIUS, born in Germany in 1651, was educated in the classical and modern languages and all the science of his age, and trained in the practice of the law. He arrived in Philadelphia, August, 1683, and in October began to lay out Germantown. He was its first bailiff, a member of the Assembly, and a signer of the first protest against slavery made in America. This protest is the subject of Whittier's poem, "The Pennsylvania Pilgrim." Pastorius taught school in Germantown and Philadelphia for many years. He published several works and left others in manuscript. His Latin prologue to the Germantown book of records was translated by Whittier in the ode beginning "Hail to Posterity." He died in Germantown in 1719.

ROBERT PATTERSON came to this country from Ireland when quite young and entered the employ of a merchant in Philadelphia. After going through college, he entered the army in the War of 1812, and rose to be captain. He then became a prominent manufacturer in Philadelphia. When the Mexican war broke out, he again buckled on his sword, and was appointed major-general of United States volunteers. He distinguished himself at Cerro Gordo, and when the Civil War commenced, the offer of his services at the first call for volunteers was very welcome. He was assigned to the command of the department of Pennsylvania, Delaware and Maryland. Having enlisted only for three months, and being nearly seventy years old, he was mustered out of service after the battle of Bull Run. He engaged again in manufacturing, and lived to the ripe old age of eighty-nine.

REMBRANDT PEALE, born in Philadelphia in 1778, was the son of Charles W. Peale, who was for nearly twenty years the only portrait painter of note in America, having made the first likeness of Washington, and the likenesses of nearly all the Revolutionary officers. The son produced a portrait of Washington at

the age of seventeen. He studied abroad for a number of years, and when he returned to Philadelphia painted the famous "Court of Death" and "The Roman Daughter." He made a great effort to have drawing introduced in the schools, but was not very successful. Both the father and the son studied under Benjamin West. Rembrandt died in 1860.

TIMOTHY PICKERING, though a native of Massachusetts and a resident of that State in the early and late years of his life, was identified with so much of Pennsylvania's history that he deserves a place in it. As adjutant-general in Washington's army, he was at Brandywine and Germantown; later he served on the Board of War and was made quartermaster-general. At the close of the war, he went into business in Philadelphia, but removed to Wilkes-Barre in 1786. He was the leading spirit in the settlement of the land dispute between Pennsylvania and the Connecticut settlers in the Wyoming valley. He organized Luzerne county, and was a delegate from that county in the Pennsylvania convention that ratified the Constitution of the United States. He negotiated treaties with the Six Nations, was successively Postmaster-General, Secretary of War, and Secretary of State. From the last office he was dismissed by John Adams because he would not resign. He again settled on his lands in Pennsylvania; but a number of his friends in Massachusetts bought them in order to induce him to return to his native State, which he did, and afterwards served in both houses of Congress.

"**MOLLY PITCHER'S**" true name was Mollie Hays. Her husband was an artillery sergeant. She accompanied him to the war, and after two years of camp life immortalized her name at the battle of Monmouth by taking his place at his gun when he was wounded and by carrying water for the wounded after the battle. The latter act won for her the name of "Molly Pitcher." After Sergeant Hays died, she married George McCauley. This explains the inscription on her tombstone in the old Carlisle graveyard:

"**MOLLIE McCAULEY,**

RENOWNED IN HISTORY AS

'**MOLLIE PITCHER,**'

THE HEROINE OF MONMOUTH.

DIED JANUARY, 1833, AGED 79 [?] YEARS.

ERECTED BY THE CITIZENS OF CUMBERLAND COUNTY, JULY 4, 1876."

DR. WILLIAM PLUNKET was the first resident physician of Northumberland county. He was a native of Ireland, and on his arrival in America settled at Carlisle. He was lieutenant and surgeon in the French and Indian war, and received for his ser-

vices several hundred acres on the West Branch. To this he gave the name of "Soldier's Retreat" and established his residence there. He took part in the opening scenes of the Revolution, but became neutral afterwards.

JOSEPH PRIESTLY was an English Unitarian clergyman, a scientist, and an author. He made many discoveries in chemistry, and in 1774 discovered oxygen gas. His theological views being obnoxious, his church and property were destroyed by a mob and he came to America in 1794. He resided at Northumberland and continued his scientific investigations there until his death, in 1804. In 1874, the scientists of America celebrated the centennial anniversary of the discovery of oxygen at Northumberland.

SAMUEL J. RANDALL was born in Philadelphia, in 1828, and engaged in mercantile pursuits. He entered politics as member of the councils. He served in the State Senate, and at the outbreak of the Rebellion joined the Union army as a private. In 1863 he was elected to Congress, where he remained until his death, in 1890. He was Speaker of the House from 1876 to 1881, and was long the recognized leader of the Democrats in the House, except in matters pertaining to the tariff, on which question he was a protectionist. His national reputation made him a prominent candidate for the Presidency, and he was brought forward in the Democratic conventions of 1880 and 1884.

THOMAS BUCHANAN READ, the Poet-Painter, was born in East Brandywine township, Chester county; lived in Philadelphia and Cincinnati, spent much of his time abroad, and died in New York, in 1872, shortly after his return from the last sojourn in Europe. He was not alone a great poet, but an artist, too. His portrait of "Sheridan and His Horse" has attained almost equal celebrity with his popular poem on "Sheridan's Ride." "Longfellow's Children" is another favorite painting. His reputation as a poet rests in the short lyrics contained in his "Lays and Ballads." "Sheridan's Ride" was dashed off by the author at a hotel an hour or so before attending a reception given to General Sheridan.

JOHN FULTON REYNOLDS was a native of Lancaster and a West Point graduate. After gallant services in the Mexican war, he was appointed commander of cadets at the military academy. He entered the war of the Union as lieutenant-colonel and rose to the command of a corps. General Meade and the entire Army of the Potomac lost a brave soldier and a noble gentleman when Reynolds fell before Gettysburg. He was but forty-three years old, and had it not been for a sharp-shooter's bullet he might have won glory on many another battlefield. His remains were buried in the Lancaster cemetery on the Fourth of July, when Lee's army was in full retreat across Mason and Dixon's Line.

DAVID RITTENHOUSE was born on a farm near Germantown, in 1732. He showed his mechanical genius at the age of seven by making a little waterwheel, and ten years later he had made a clock with his own hands. Mathematics engaged his mind while at work on the farm. He used fences and buildings as blackboards. Before he was of age he had mastered the "method of fluxions," of which he for a long time supposed himself the sole discoverer. He constructed the most complete orrery that had ever been made; it is now in possession of Princeton University. Later on he made a still larger one for the University of Pennsylvania. Rittenhouse succeeded Franklin as president of the American Philosophical Society, and was also a prominent man in the councils of the State and Nation. He helped to form the first constitution of Pennsylvania, was State Treasurer from 1777-1789, member of the Board of War, and the first Director of the United States Mint. He died in 1796, at his home in Philadelphia, corner of Seventh and Arch. An eulogium upon his character was delivered in the presence of Washington, members of Congress, the State Legislature, and the City Councils.

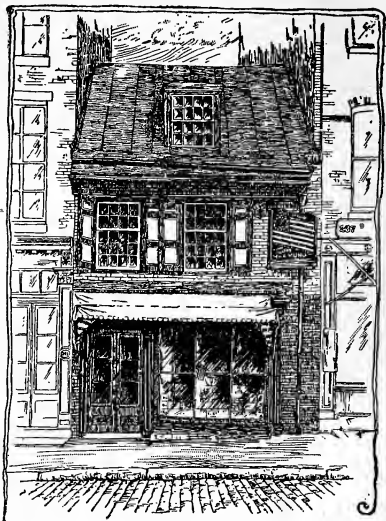
SAMUEL RHOADS was a wealthy builder in Philadelphia and repeatedly a member of the Assembly before the Revolution. He was elected to the first Continental Congress while he was mayor of the city. He helped to found the Pennsylvania hospital and was an active member of the Philosophical Society.

JOHN ROACH, a native of Ireland, came to this country at the age of fourteen, and settled in New York as a machinist. He established a foundry and made the largest engines then in use. He was very successful, and in 1871 bought the shipyards at Chester. His plant covered 120 acres and was valued at \$2,000,000. He built sixty-three vessels in twelve years, chiefly for the United States. On the refusal of the government to accept the *Dolphin*, in 1883, he made an assignment and closed his works; but they were re-opened when the vessel was accepted. He built more than a hundred iron vessels altogether, and constructed the sectional dock at Pensacola, Florida. He died in 1887.

GEORGE ROSS was a native of New Castle, Delaware, and was classically educated. He settled in Lancaster, 1751, and practiced law. He served in the Assembly several years and was prominent in all the movements that led to the Revolution. His first important service was performed as a delegate to the Provincial Convention in 1774. The Assembly elected him as one of the delegates to the first Continental Congress. He next raised a company of associators, and was president of the Lancaster Military Convention, July 4, 1776. He was vice-president of the convention that framed the first State Constitution, and at the same time a member of Congress, affixing his name to the Declaration of Independence, August 2, 1776, in a hand that was

second only to John Hancock's in strength and boldness. He died, as Judge of the Admiralty Court, in 1779. A memorial pillar was erected in 1897, on the site of his house in Lancaster.

BETSY ROSS was the wife of John Ross, a nephew of George Ross, the signer. The house where the flag was made is now 239 Arch street, below Third, in Philadelphia—a small two-storied and attic tenement, formerly No. 39. She was a Quaker lady, engaged in upholstering. Washington was a frequent visitor at her house and knew her skill with the needle. She embroidered his shirt ruffles and did many other things for him. He, together with Robert Morris and George Ross, her husband's uncle, called on her, in June, 1776, and told her they were a committee of Congress and wanted her to make the flag from a rough drawing. She replied, "I don't know whether I can, but I'll try." She suggested that the design was wrong, the stars being six-pointed and not five-pointed, as they should be. This and other changes on the drawing were made by General Washington, in her back parlor.



Betsy Ross House.

PETER FREDERICK ROTHERMEL was born in Nescopeck, Luzerne county, 1821. He came to Philadelphia in his childhood, and commenced life as a surveyor. At the age of twenty-two he followed the natural bent of his mind, dropped the surveyor's chain and took up the painter's brush. In 1856 he went to Europe and studied art three years. On his return he was elected a member of the Pennsylvania Academy of Fine Arts. He produced numerous well-known paintings, some of which are owned abroad. After the Civil War the Legislature of Pennsylvania commissioned him to paint the "Battle of Gettysburg." He completed the colossal work in 1871, and received \$25,000 for it. It hung in Memorial Hall, Philadelphia, until the Executive Building was erected at Harrisburg, when it was placed on the wall of the Flag Room. He died at his home in Linfield, Montgomery county, August, 1895, in the same week with Hovenden.

BENJAMIN RUSH was born in Byberry township, Philadelphia county, northeast of the city. He graduated at Princeton and studied medicine here and abroad. He practiced his profession in Philadelphia with great devotion and success. During the yellow fever epidemic of 1793, he stuck to his post when all but two other physicians had fled. For a whole week, he visited and prescribed for about 120 patients per day, and many had to leave his office unaided. He was a professor of medicine in the University of Pennsylvania, and had numerous office students. To his fame as a practitioner and teacher of medicine, Dr. Rush added the distinction of being an eminent author. He was the first writer on temperance in America. He also mixed in the councils of the State and Nation, and employed his talents in the cause of liberty. In July, 1776, he was chosen a member of Congress, and was one of the signers of the Declaration of Independence, though not one of the delegates present at the adoption.

CHRISTOPHER SAUR (now Sower) was born in Germany, graduated at Marburg University, and studied medicine. He came to Philadelphia in 1724, settled in Lancaster county as a farmer, but removed to Germantown soon afterwards. Feeling the want of books among his countrymen here, especially in the line of religion, he imported Bibles and other works from Germany. After he had established his printing house, he issued in the German language an almanac — long continued by his descendants, a magazine — among the first in America, and in 1843, the Bible — Luther's translation, the largest work yet published in the colonies, and with the exception of Eliot's Indian Bible, the first Bible printed in America. Saur is supposed to have invented cast-iron stoves; at least he introduced them into general use. He also practiced his profession and made eight-day "grandfather" clocks. His son, Christopher, who was likewise a prominent man in the province, especially in the Tunker Church, continued the publishing business. The house is still known as the Christopher Sower Publishing Company, after an unbroken existence of one hundred and fifty years.

MICHAEL SCHLATTER was born in Switzerland and was sent to America by the Reformed Synod of Amsterdam to look after the German emigrants of that denomination in Pennsylvania. He was pastor of the churches in Philadelphia and Germantown and organized congregations in this State and in New Jersey, Maryland and Virginia. He induced other ministers to come to America and assisted in organizing the synod of America. His work in behalf of the education of the German settlers was untiring and most laudable. In 1757 he was chaplain of an expedition to Nova Scotia against the French, and for espousing the cause of liberty in the Revolution he was imprisoned when the British occupied Philadelphia.

THOMAS A. SCOTT was born in Franklin county, and on

account of his father's death was obliged to leave school at the age of ten years and earn his livelihood. After filling several clerical positions, he began his railroad career at Columbia, where he was collector of tolls on the line of the State railroad. He was promoted to be chief clerk in the collector's office in Philadelphia; and in 1850 he entered the service of the Pennsylvania Railroad Company as station agent at Duncansville, then the western terminus of the road. He now rose from one position to another, becoming vice-president of the company in 1860, and president in 1874. It was largely owing to Colonel Scott that the Pennsylvania railroad attained to its high rank among the trunk-lines of America—a rank that is second to none. It was during the war of the Rebellion that his great abilities were put to the severest test. Governor Curtin called him to Harrisburg in 1861 to direct the movement of troops from the North and the West while en route through the State on their way to Washington. When the bridges of the Northern Central railroad had been destroyed, Simon Cameron, Secretary of War, asked Governor Curtin to send Scott to Washington in order to open a new route. Though he was needed in Harrisburg, the Governor released him and in a short time the movement of troops below Mason and Dixon's line was again uninterrupted. When Lincoln heard the good news, he said, "Thank God! we are all right again!" Scott was now mustered into the United States service as colonel and appointed Assistant Secretary of War. In this position he kept up an incessant stream of cars, carrying troops and supplies, across the Potomac and the Ohio into the heart of the Confederacy. Colonel Scott's useful and well-rounded life ended in 1881.

SHIKELLIMY was of Oneida birth and was probably born in New York. He first appeared in Pennsylvania about 1728, living on the West Branch, below Milton. Later on, he established himself at Shamokin as the chief of all the Iroquois on the Susquehanna. His influence was courted by the provincial authorities, and he attended nearly all the treaties made in his time. He was a warm friend of the Moravian missionary, Zeisberger, and of Weiser. While in Bethlehem the last time he was converted. On his way home he took sick, and died shortly after his return. Zeisberger was his spiritual adviser in the last hours, and had him buried in a coffin. Another important and interesting character, near Shamokin, was Madame Montour, a French Canadian, who had married Roland Montour, a Seneca brave, and lived on the Chenasky as early as 1727. In that year she acted as interpreter in Philadelphia between the Governor and the Five Nations. At the death of her husband, John and Thomas Penn condoled with her publicly, in Philadelphia, while she attended a treaty. Her son Andrew was also a provincial interpreter for a number of years. He received a grant of land northwest of Carlisle, and was captain of a company of Indians in the English service. The French set a price of £100 on his head.

WILLIAM SMITH, D.D., was a native of Scotland, educated at the University of Aberdeen, and of great learning and executive ability. He came to New York at the age of twenty-four, but was induced by Franklin to settle in Philadelphia and become the first Provost or President of the College of Philadelphia, a position he held until the institution was merged into the University of Pennsylvania. He took great interest in political affairs, as well as in matters of church and education. He sided with the Proprietaries, and the Assembly had him arrested at one time and thrown into jail. But his work as a teacher went on, for his classes met him in the prison. When the Revolution commenced he was an ardent supporter of the American cause, preaching loyal sermons and making patriotic addresses. However, in 1777, he was arrested for disloyalty, supposedly because he regarded the Declaration of Independence as premature. He gave his parole and retired to Maryland, whence he returned in 1789, to receive back what he always called "My College."

JAMES SMITH was one of the men who signed the Declaration of Independence. When a lad, he came to this country from Ireland, and settled with his father on the west bank of the Susquehanna. He was educated in the classics to some extent, became a surveyor and a lawyer, practicing these blended professions first near Shippensburg, then at York. He resided all the rest of his life in York, and was for a long time the only resident lawyer there. At the outbreak of the Revolution, he at once took an active part in behalf of liberty. He raised the first Pennsylvania company for resistance to Great Britain, was a member of the Provincial Convention in 1774, and served as a delegate in Congress. He died in 1806.

EDWIN M. STANTON, of Quaker stock, was born in Ohio, and practiced law there until 1848, when he settled in Pittsburgh and became leader at the bar of Allegheny county. He went into Buchanan's cabinet as Attorney-General, to fill a vacancy. When Simon Cameron resigned the portfolio of Secretary of War, Lincoln selected Stanton to fill the place. His management of the War Department was noted for vigor and integrity. He became embroiled at times with politicians and officers, especially with McClellan and Sherman. He remained in Johnson's cabinet after Lincoln's death, but was suspended by the President on account of serious disagreement. This action brought the quarrel between the President and Congress to a head. Stanton was restored but again removed, and the President's impeachment followed. Congress passed a vote of thanks to Mr. Stanton on his retirement. He resumed the practice of law, but his long and arduous labors had undermined his strength, and he died in 1869.

ARTHUR ST. CLAIR came to America as a British soldier, in 1758. He was born in Edinburgh, Scotland, and served under General Wolfe at Quebec. He established himself in Westmore-

land county, and took the side of the colonies in the Revolution. He served through the whole war and rose to the rank of major-general. He represented Pennsylvania in the Continental Congress from 1785 to 1787, and was president of that body when it passed the famous Ordinance of 1787, by which the Northwest Territory was organized. He was Governor of this Territory from 1789 to 1802. He commanded the expedition against the Miami Indians, which ended so disastrously. He was sick at the time and gave his orders on a litter; but public opinion obliged him to resign his command. After his long and distinguished public service, he lived poor and neglected on Chestnut Ridge, Westmoreland county, till he died, in 1818.

THADDEUS STEVENS was born in Vermont. He made shoes, taught a country school, and graduated at Dartmouth College before he came to Pennsylvania, as assistant teacher in the academy at York. Stepping from teaching to law, he began to practice at Gettysburg. He rapidly rose to distinction, and was sent to Harrisburg as a law-maker. He took no prominent part in the passage of the free school law except to vote for it. But when its repeal was threatened, he defended it with all his matchless logic and eloquence, and won the day against determined opposition. In honor of its author, the speech was beautifully printed on silk by some free school friends in Reading, and proudly kept by him until his death. He performed great services for the nation later on, but he himself always regarded his successful defense of free schools in Pennsylvania as the greatest achievement of his life. In 1841 he removed to Lancaster, where he was elected to Congress in 1848. He served in that body fourteen years, dying in Washington in 1868. He was one of the boldest and ablest statesmen who sustained the Union in its hour of peril. He was a sincere and consistent friend of the colored race. He ordered in his will that his body should not be buried in a cemetery where the color line was drawn. He served in Congress when he ought to have been at home enjoying the twilight of his life; for during his last year he was daily carried in a chair to his seat.

CHARLES STEWART was born in Philadelphia, and entered the United States Navy in 1798. He captured three French ships in 1800, and distinguished himself in the Tripolitan War. In the summer of 1813 he took command of the *Constitution*, and captured three English vessels that year, and two in each of the following years of the war. He received a vote of thanks, a sword, and a gold medal, from Congress; a vote of thanks and a sword from the Pennsylvania Legislature; and from New York the freedom of the city. From the people he received the sobriquet of "Old Ironsides." He remained in the navy till he died, in 1869, a period of seventy-one years, and rose to be rear-admiral. He was the grandfather of Charles Stewart Parnell, the great Irish Home Rule leader in the British Parliament.

HENRY WILLIAM STIEGEL, the founder of the quaint old town of Manheim, Lancaster county, emigrated from Manheim, Germany. He was a very eccentric character. He made frequent visits to his furnace and always drove a four-in-hand. It is said that he had a watchman stationed in the cupola of his mansion to announce his return home by firing a cannon. A band organized among his employes then proceeded to the cupola and many of the villagers repaired to his residence to join in the demonstrations. Among the recorded facts of his eccentric life is this: When he deeded the lots upon which the Evangelical Lutheran church was built, in 1770, the price was to be a red rose, to be paid yearly upon demand. The red rose is paid to his descendants to this day. It constitutes a very unique and beautiful observance in the church, and has attracted much attention in recent years in the newspapers and magazines. The Baron afterwards became reduced in circumstances, and ended his life in a log house at Womelsdorf, where he taught a village school.

"Baron Stiegel ist der mann,
Der die Ofen gieszen kann."

Baron Stiegel is the man
Who can cast the stoves.

BAYARD TAYLOR (1825-1878) was a native of Kennett Square, Chester county, and lived there after his many travels by land and sea, though he died at Berlin, Germany. Before he was



Library of Bayard Taylor at Cedarcroft.

twenty-one, he went to Europe and made a trip on foot among the most interesting places. His experiences were recorded in "Views Afoot, or Europe Seen with Knapsack and Staff." This work made him famous at once, and he was in a position to write other books—of travel, poetry and fiction—and to become popular as a journalist and lecturer. As a novelist, he depicted American life, particularly life in Pennsylvania, as in "Hannah Thurston,"

and "The Story of Kennett." In his verse, too, he often drew material from his own State, as, in "The Pennsylvania Farmer." The greatest of his poetic efforts is the translation of "Goethe's Faust." He loved Germany and the German people. While his father was a descendant of an English immigrant of 1681, his grandmothers on both sides were of German descent. It was a fitting coincidence, therefore, that he should have died in the German capital, as the American minister to Germany.

Bayard Taylor was the greatest literary man Pennsylvania has produced, and Kennett Square may be proud to be his cradle and his grave.

GEORGE TAYLOR was an Irishman by birth, the son of a clergyman, who gave him an education more liberal than most youths received at that time. On his arrival in America he paid for his passage by working in the iron works of Durham, Bucks county. He made money, bought an estate in Northampton county, and fixed his residence there. He was soon after sent to the Assembly and served five years in that body. He was active in the movement which led to the Revolution, and entered Congress in July, 1776, with Ross, Smith, Rush and Clymer, to take the places of those who had opposed the Declaration. He was therefore one of the members not in Congress on the 2d of July, but on the 2d of August, when the engrossed document was signed. Taylor died in Easton in 1781.

TEDYUSCUNG was a frequent visitor to Philadelphia, and had acquired a free use of English. He was one of the ablest of Indian chiefs, but was too fond of liquor. At Albany, while negotiating a treaty, he was so much under its influence that his wife had to rebuke him publicly. At his earnest request, he was baptized by the Moravians; but he relapsed into his old ways, though not without regret. Blamed by his own people for siding with the English, and envied by the Iroquois for his influence in the councils of the province, he was between two fires during most of the French and Indian war. In 1763, he burned to death in his own house at Wyoming while asleep in bed. Some Iroquois Indians put him to sleep with liquor and then set fire to his house. Tedyuscung was the last chief of the Delawares on the east side of the Alleghenies.

WILLIAM TENNENT was a native of Ireland, liberally educated, and while there a clergyman in the Episcopal Church. He came to America in 1718, and was received as a minister into the Presbyterian Church. After a brief pastorate in New York, he came to Bucks county, where he remained to the close of his life. He preached at Neshaminy; and on land that was given him by James Logan he erected the "Log College," a name probably given to the school at first in contempt. About 1840 a part of one of the logs was found and a cane made from it and given to one of the professors of Princeton Seminary.

CHARLES THOMSON came to Pennsylvania from Ireland at the age of eleven. He was a very influential man during the Revolution, both in the councils of the State and the United States. He was called "the Sam Adams of Philadelphia." He was scholarly and true to his principles. The Indians had so much respect for him that he was elected a member of the Delaware tribe. They called him "the man of truth," and it used to

be a saying—"It is as true as if Charles Thomson's name were under it." He was Secretary of the Continental Congress during its entire history from 1774 to 1789. He had made a careful record of all the proceedings and reduced it to the form of a book; but for fear of offending some of the Revolutionary families, he afterwards burned the manuscript. This was probably the greatest mistake of his life; for much valuable history is buried in his grave. He died in 1824.

MOSES VAN CAMPEN was a Dutchman from the Minisink settlement on the Delaware, but lived near the present site of Bloomsburg most of his life, and was famous for his daring in the border warfare on the Susquehanna. He and



Moses Van Campen.

a companion once freed themselves at night from a guard of nine Indians, killing all but one of them. After this wonderful escape, he was in great demand to organize bands against the Indians. In 1782 he was ordered by the government to clear the West Branch about Williamsport of Indians. But in this he failed; for he was captured, carried to Niagara, and delivered to the British. When the Indians learned who he was, they demanded him back. The British officer promised to protect him if he would renounce the American cause. He replied that he would die the most cruel death the Indians could in-

dict before he would dishonor the character of an American officer. His loyalty secured him protection, and he was exchanged when the war closed. He died in New York State at a very old age.

JOHN WANAMAKER was born in Philadelphia in 1838 and received a common school education. He became a merchant and built up the largest retail business in the United States. He was a member of the Centennial Commission and contributed much to its success. He has always taken great interest in Christian and philanthropic work. He is the superintendent of the largest Sunday School in the world, and a very prominent member of the Young Men's Christian Association. He was Postmaster-General in President Harrison's Cabinet, and made many improvements in the postal service by his business-like methods.

ANTHONY WAYNE was a native of Chester county, and played the soldier so much in his boyhood that his father made him choose between the farm and his books. He took the latter and became a surveyor. In 1774 he was sent to the Provincial Convention in Philadelphia, then to the Assembly, and the next year was a member of the Committee of Public Safety. In 1776 he joined the Northern army as colonel of a regiment. His soldierly qualities secured him promotion first to the rank of brigadier and then to that of major-general. He was wounded at Three Rivers,

fought at Brandywine, was twice wounded at Germantown, received honorable mention for bravery at Monmouth, and a gold medal from Congress for his capture of Stony Point. The people expressed their appreciation of his daring by calling him "Mad Anthony." He was also present at the capture of Cornwallis. Georgia afterwards gave him a farm for driving the British out of her borders. In 1791 that State sent him to Congress, but in a contest for a seat he lost. He then received the command of the Federal army, and once more distinguished himself by subduing the Indians of Ohio in the battle of Fallen Timbers. He died in the old fort at Presque Isle, in 1796, and was buried "at the foot of the flag-staff," according to his request. In 1809 his remains were carried to Chester county.

CONRAD WEISER at the age of fourteen emigrated from Germany with his parents and a company of Palatines. They settled in a body in New York. Here young Conrad lived for eight months with an Indian chief, who took a great fancy to him and taught him the Indian language, so valuable in his life. In 1723, with many of his German neighbors in New York, he settled at Tulpehocken, near Reading. He engaged in farming and acquired a large tract of land in Heidelberg township. His knowledge of the Mohawk secured him the position of interpreter for the province, in 1732. He held this position as long as he could attend to its duties, and was present at all the treaties made. His word was held in great respect by the red men. During the French and Indian war he was commander of all the forces raised west of the Susquehanna. In his last years he lived in Reading. He died in 1760, and is buried in the family graveyard, near Womelsdorf.

BENJAMIN WEST was born in the county of Chester (now Delaware) in 1738. He was born a Quaker and had a strong desire to become a painter, but received little encouragement because his sect then were opposed to "likenesses" of all kinds. However, he overcame all obstacles in his way. He drew his sister's baby while he watched it, he learned from the Indians how to prepare some simple colors, and he despoiled the cat's whiskers to make a brush. A present of a painter's outfit was sent to Ben one day by a Friend in Philadelphia, who had detected his wonderful talents while on a visit to the Wests. With it he made a painting that gave evidence of his future greatness. In 1759, he visited Italy to study under the great artists. Then he found his way to London, where he was patronized by the King and became the president of the Royal Academy of Arts. He died in London in 1820.

GEORGE WESTINGHOUSE was born in New York, and as a boy became familiar with machinery in his father's agricultural works at Schenectady. He entered the Union army in 1863, and after his return became a student at Union College. However, the

spirit of invention, which had made him most useful in the army, was too strong to be shut within college walls. Going to Troy one day, a delay, caused by a collision, suggested to Mr. Westinghouse the idea of a brake under the control of the engineer. Being invited to Pittsburg, as agent for the introduction of steel frogs, he traveled much among railroad men, and finally got consent to try his air-brake on the "Pan-Handle," between Pittsburg and Steubenville. A train of four cars and an engine was fitted out, in 1868, and the first application of the brake prevented a collision with a wagon on the track. The Westinghouse Air-Brake Company was formed the next year, and since then Mr. Westinghouse has taken out more than 1,000 patents, including those of the air-brake, the union switch and signal apparatus, and electric lighting. In 1891 the Westinghouse Electric and Manufacturing Company was organized for the manufacture of all these patents. The works are in East Pittsburg and employ thousands of operatives.

WILLIAM WHITE, of Philadelphia, graduated from the college there at the age of 17. He completed his theological studies in 1770, took holy orders in England, and commenced his career as an Episcopal clergyman in his native city, in 1772. He was a zealous supporter of the Revolution, and fled to Maryland when the British occupied Philadelphia. He was chaplain to Congress from 1787 to 1801. Dr. White was made bishop of Pennsylvania in 1786—one of the first three in America.

ROBERT WHITEHILL, of Cumberland, but native in Lancaster county, resided on a farm two miles west of Harrisburg. He was in public life for a long time, and made a brilliant and successful record. During a term as Senator of Pennsylvania, he was Speaker at the celebrated impeachment of the Supreme Court. He was elected to Congress in 1805, and served in that body till his death, in 1813. From 1774, when he served on the county committee, to the time of his death, he filled almost every position in the gift of the people.

JAMES PYLE WICKERSHAM was born in Chester county, and began his career as an educator by teaching school at the age of sixteen. After equipping himself at the Unionville Academy, he took the principalship of the Marietta Academy, in Lancaster county. He was elected the first superintendent of schools in Lancaster county. To improve the teachers he held a "Teachers' Institute" at Millersville, and thus laid the foundation of the Normal School at that place—the first in the State—of which he became the principal. He served in this capacity for ten years, when Governor Curtin made him State Superintendent of Common Schools. He now had a wide field of usefulness, and he cultivated every part of it with splendid results during his fourteen years of office. Before his death, in 1891, he wrote a History of

Education in Pennsylvania, which is a very valuable contribution to the history of the State.

THOMAS WILLING was the business partner of Robert Morris. The firm was of great assistance to the Revolutionary cause in supplying stores and funds. Mr. Willing was mayor of Philadelphia, Judge of the Supreme Court, president of the Provincial Congress of 1774, and became a member of the Continental Congress in 1775. He voted against the Declaration of Independence on the ground that it was not the time for such a step.

DAVID WILMOT, of Bradford county, was born in 1814, and educated at an academy. He began the practice of law at Wilkes-Barre but soon afterwards settled in Towanda. He became a prominent Democratic politician and served in Congress from 1845-51. He was the author of the "Wilmot proviso," providing that slavery be excluded from territory to be purchased from Mexico in 1846. It passed the House, but not the Senate. For several years the "Wilmot proviso" was brought up and debated when new territories were to be organized. After serving as president judge in the Bradford district, he became United States Senator in 1861. Two years later, he was made Judge of the United States Court of Claims. He died at Towanda in 1868, and the famous "proviso" is inscribed on his tombstone.

JAMES WILSON was a Scotchman, educated at Glasgow, St. Andrew's and Edinburgh Universities. He emigrated to America, and, after practicing law at Reading, appeared in public life as a delegate from Cumberland county to the convention that met in Philadelphia to concert measures preparatory to the First Continental Congress. He retained his residence in Carlisle till 1777, when he removed to Annapolis, Maryland, and the next year finally settled in Philadelphia. He was prominent in the discussions preceding the Revolution, was several times a delegate in Congress, and was one of the signers of the Declaration of Independence who also sat in the Constitutional Convention, in 1787. In 1789 he was appointed one of the first associate justices of the Supreme Court, and was at the same time a law professor in the University of Pennsylvania. Wilson's fame rests chiefly in the fact that of the fifty-five delegates to the Constitutional Convention, he was the best prepared, by his knowledge of history and the science of government, for the work that was to be done. None spoke more to the point and none, excepting Gouverneur Morris and Madison, was so often on his feet. He died in North Carolina while on his judicial circuit, and was buried there.

ALEXANDER WILSON was a Scotchman, who came to this country in 1794 with a few borrowed shillings and no acquaintances. He worked at first with a copper-plate printer, then with a weaver, in Philadelphia. He followed teaching next, and, while he taught a school near Darby, Delaware county (see page 282),

became acquainted with the famous naturalist, William Bartram, who, by his own love of birds, deeply interested the young man in that branch of nature. Wilson resolved to make a collection of all the birds of America. He set out on his first expedition in 1804. He studied drawing and etching, and prevailed upon a Philadelphia publisher to undertake an American Ornithology, of which there are nine volumes. He traveled extensively in the United States, collecting specimens, for nearly a decade. In his eagerness to get a rare bird, he swam across a river and caught cold, which ended in his death, at Philadelphia, in 1813. Wilson was also a poet. He gave us a beautiful glimpse into his life at Darby in his poem—"The Solitary Tutor."

DAVID ZEISBERGER was a Moravian missionary, who emigrated to Georgia from Moravia, in the Austrian empire. He came to Pennsylvania to assist in the building of Bethlehem and Nazareth. He studied the Delaware language at Bethlehem, and went among the Five Nations to acquire the use of theirs. He not only did missionary work among Pennsylvania Indians, but among those of New England and the South. When the various tribes had been driven to Canada and beyond the Ohio, Zeisberger followed even thither. He died in Goshen, Ohio, a town which he founded. He published Indian school books of various kinds, and left a diary extending over the years from 1781 to 1798.

COUNT VON ZINZENDORF, founder of the Moravian colony at Bethlehem, was born at Dresden, Germany, in 1700, educated at Halle, and after traveling for a time as a religious reformer, was appointed a member of the Saxon state council. But political life was not to his taste, and he became interested in the Moravian brethren, among whom he was ordained a bishop. When he had planted the settlements in America and organized a number of missionary stations among the Indians, he returned to "Herrnhut," his estate in Saxony, where he died.

APPENDIX

Principal Officers of the United States Government from Pennsylvania, 1783 to 1897

NAME	Date of appointment	Born	Died
PRESIDENTS			
<i>Prior to the adoption of the Constitution</i>			
Thomas Mifflin.....	Nov. 3, 1783	1744	1800
Arthur St. Clair.....	Feb. 2, 1787	1734	1818
PRESIDENT	Term of Service	Born	Died
<i>Under the Constitution</i>			
James Buchanan.....	1857-1861	1791	1868
VICE PRESIDENT			
George M. Dallas.....	1845-1849	1792	1864
SECRETARIES OF STATE			
Timothy Pickering	1795-1800	1745	1829
James Buchanan.....	1845-1849	1791	1868
Jeremiah S. Black.....	1860-1861	1810	1883
SECRETARIES OF THE TREASURY			
Albert Gallatin.....	1801-1814	1761	1849
Alexander J. Dallas.....	1814-1817	1759	1817
Richard Rush	1825-1829	1780	1859
Samuel D. Ingham.....	1829-1831	1773	1860
William J. Duane	1833	1780	1865
Walter Forward.....	1841-1843	1786	1852
William M. Meredith.....	1849-1850	1799	1873
SECRETARIES OF WAR			
Timothy Pickering.....	1795	1745	1829
James M. Porter.....	1843-1844	1793	1862
William Wilkins.....	1844-1845	1779	1865
Simon Cameron.....	1861-1862	1799	1889
Edwin M. Stanton.....	1862-1868	1814	1870
J. Donald Cameron.....	1876-1877	1833	
SECRETARIES OF THE NAVY			
William Jones.....	1813-1814	1760	1831
Adolph E. Borie.....	1869	1809	1880
SECRETARY OF THE INTERIOR			
T. M. T. McKennan.....	1850	1794	1852

Principal Officers of the United States Government—continued

NAME	Term of Service	Born	Died
POSTMASTERS GENERAL			
Timothy Pickering.....	1791-1795	1745	1829
James Campbell.....	1853-1857	1812	1892
John Wanamaker.....	1889-1893	1838	
Charles Emory Smith.....	1898	1842	
ATTORNEYS GENERAL			
William Bradford.....	1794-1795	1755	1795
Richard Rush.....	1814-1817	1780	1850
Henry D. Gilpin.....	1840-1841	1801	1860
Jeremiah S. Black.....	1857-1860	1810	1883
Edwin M. Stanton.....	1860-1861	1814	1869
Wayne MacVeagh.....	1881	1833	
Benjamin H. Brewster.....	1881-1885	1816	1888
ASSOCIATE JUSTICES OF THE SUPREME COURT			
James Wilson.....	1789-1798	1742	1798
Henry Baldwin.....	1830-1846	1779	1846
Robert C. Grier.....	1846-1870	1794	1870
William Strong.....	1870-1880	1808	1895
George Shiras, Jr.....	1892	1832	
PRESIDENTS PRO TEM. OF THE SENATE			
William Bingham.....	1797	1729	1808
James Ross.....	1797-1799	1761	1847
Andrew Gregg.....	1809	1755	1835
SPEAKERS HOUSE OF REPRESENTATIVES			
F. A. Muhlenberg.....	1789-1791	1750	1801
F. A. Muhlenberg.....	1793-1795	1750	1801
Galusha A. Grow.....	1861-1863	1823	
Samuel J. Randall.....	1876-1881	1828	1890

SENATORS

William Maclay.....	1789-1871	Samuel McKean.....	1833-1839
Robert Morris.....	1789-1795	James Buchanan.....	1834-1845
Albert Gallatin.....	1793-1794	Daniel Sturgeon.....	1839-1851
James Ross.....	1794-1803	Simon Cameron.....	1845-1849
William Bingham.....	1795-1801	James Cooper.....	1849-1855
John P. G. Muhlenberg.....	1801	Richard Brodhead.....	1851-1857
George Logan.....	1801-1807	William Bigler.....	1855-1861
Samuel Maclay.....	1803-1808	Simon Cameron.....	1857-1861
Andrew Gregg.....	1807-1813	David Wilmot.....	1861-1863
Michael Leib.....	1808-1814	Edward Cowan.....	1861-1867
Abner Leacock.....	1813-1819	Charles R. Buckalew.....	1863-1869
Jonathan Roberts.....	1814-1821	Simon Cameron.....	1867-1877
Walter Lowrie.....	1819-1825	John Scott.....	1869-1875
William Findlay.....	1821-1827	William A. Wallace.....	1875-1881
William Marks.....	1825-1831	J. Donald Cameron.....	1877-1897
Isaac D. Barnhard.....	1827-1831	John I. Mitchell.....	1881-1887
George Mifflin Dallas.....	1831-1833	Matthew Stanley Quay.....	1887-1899
William Wilkins.....	1831-1834	Boise Penrosé.....	1897-

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